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ABSTRACT

In nine chapters, this guide provides planners of professional development programs for school administrators, directors, and supervisors with background information for assistance with the design of local entry-year programs and activities by employing school systems. In chapter 1, the legal basis for entry year programs is examined through a statement of the Ohio Department of Education Standard in which these learning experiences are mandated. The research bases for the development of induction programs for beginning administrators are presented in chapter 2. A discussion ~~of the~~ development of programmatic wholeness and integrity is covered in chapter 3 for the purpose of indicating how entry-year programs might be able to fit other school district inservice and professional development activities. Chapter 4 reviews a model for developing an entry year program and offers an outline to assist planners of entry year programs with design, adoption, and eventual evaluation of a written entry year support plan. Chapter 5 considers curricular relevancy issues directly related to design and implementation of plans for the induction of administrators, with particular attention to mentoring arrangements. Chapters 6, 7, and 8 describe the mentoring and protege components of entry-year programs. Chapter 8 specifically focuses on curricular issues associated with the development of mentor training programs that might be established throughout the state of Ohio. Assisting planners with assessment procedures for their entry-year programs is discussed in chapter 9. Particular attention is placed on the use of the Ohio Department of Education model for the evaluation of its own inservice programs. (JAM)

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THE ADMINISTRATIVE ENTRY YEAR PROGRAM IN OHIO:

A RESOURCE GUIDE

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THE ADMINISTRATIVE ENTRY YEAR PROGRAM IN OHIO: A RESOURCE GUIDE

INTRODUCTION

The certification standards for certificated educational personnel adopted by the Ohio Department of Education in 1987 state that all individuals in their first year of employment under a classroom teaching certificate or an educational personnel certificate must be provided with a program of learning experiences by their employing school systems. These experiences, in turn, are to be designed to increase the likelihood that individuals will succeed during their first year on the job. This Resource Guide is designed to provide planners of professional development programs for school administrators, directors, and supervisors with background information for assistance with the design of local entry year programs and activities.

The focus here is on the development of programs for school administrators. Many ideas associated with induction programs for teachers may be helpful to those who use this Resource Guide, and readers of this book might also apply some of what is included to programs designed essentially for teachers. Nevertheless, there are characteristics of the roles of the school administrator, director or supervisor that are unique to the extent that this Resource Guide has been developed.

It should be noted that two terms used throughout this Resource Guide are protege and school administrator. Protege refers to the individual falling under the entry year standard and working with a mentor. School administrator is a broad term that incorporates entry level building administrators, central office administrators, directors and supervisors.

A strong view expressed both here in the Introduction as well as throughout all the chapters of this Resource Guide is that the Entry Year program must NOT be viewed as performance appraisal systems, and mentors should not be viewed as evaluators. Mixing personal support with personnel evaluation will impede positive program development.

The Ohio Entry Year Standard, as clarified by the Ohio Department of Education, requires only two training programs for an entry-level individual since the standard is broken down into two categories which are entry-level classroom personnel and other entry-level education personnel.

The readers of this Resource Guide are encouraged "to go beyond" the minimum expectations of the standard. Later in this Resource Guide, examples will be provided of programs that have been designed to meet the needs of beginner administrators. One clear assumption is that beginners in any field need additional support and guidance as they first move into a new professional role if they are to achieve any degree of success. An effective program needs to not only meet, but surpass the basic requirements of the standard.

PART I: NEED FOR ENTRY YEAR SUPPORT

In this section, a rationale for the development of local entry year programs is taken from three major areas: A legal basis, a research basis, and a basis derived from a view of comprehensive professional development planning. Each of these areas will be described in detail in the chapters that follow.

In Chapter 1, the legal basis for Entry Year Programs is examined through a statement of the Ohio Department of Education Standard in which these learning experiences are mandated. The research bases for the development of induction programs for beginning administrators are presented in Chapter 2 where information is provided concerning the nature of a number of studies related to beginning administrators and their needs. Included are some of the critical needs that have been identified for school administrators who wish to survive their first year on the job. Also provided is a brief description of the limitations of Entry Year Programs. The third basis for the rationale for special Entry Year Programs -- the development of programmatic integrity and wholeness -- is covered in Chapter 3 where a general discussion of professional development and growth for school administrators is provided. Here, the goal is to indicate how Entry Year Programs might be able to fit other inservice and professional development opportunities that may be made available within a local school district.

CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF OHIO'S ENTRY YEAR STANDARD

The certification standards for teachers and all other educational personnel in the state of Ohio, effective July 1987, require that all people hired by school systems must be provided with a planned program of learning experiences in their first year of employment under a classroom teaching certificate or an educational personnel certificate. It is believed that these experiences will increase the likelihood that the newly-hired individuals will achieve some degree of success. As the chart provided in Figure 1.1 indicates, the Entry Year Standard suggests that districts which employ professional educators without previous experience need to include seven components:

1. Statement of assurances signed by the superintendent and filed with the Ohio Department of Education indicating that the district has complied with the Entry Year Standard (B1a);
2. A description of the entry year program shall be on file at the office of the superintendent of the school district (B1g);
3. A method for providing specific orientation to school system expectations and practices to new employees (2b);
4. A process for the identification, training, and assigning mentors for new employees (2e, f, g, h);
5. A statement of how the local entry year program fits a larger effort to enhance ongoing professional development for staff (2d);
6. A strategy of self-evaluation of the program at the district level (3a, b);
7. Participation in a formal state evaluation of the program every five years (4)

In relation to the chart, the pie shape is divided equally. However, it is likely that some aspects of the Standard may require local districts more time for organization and implementation. Therefore, the size of the pie slices may vary from district to district.

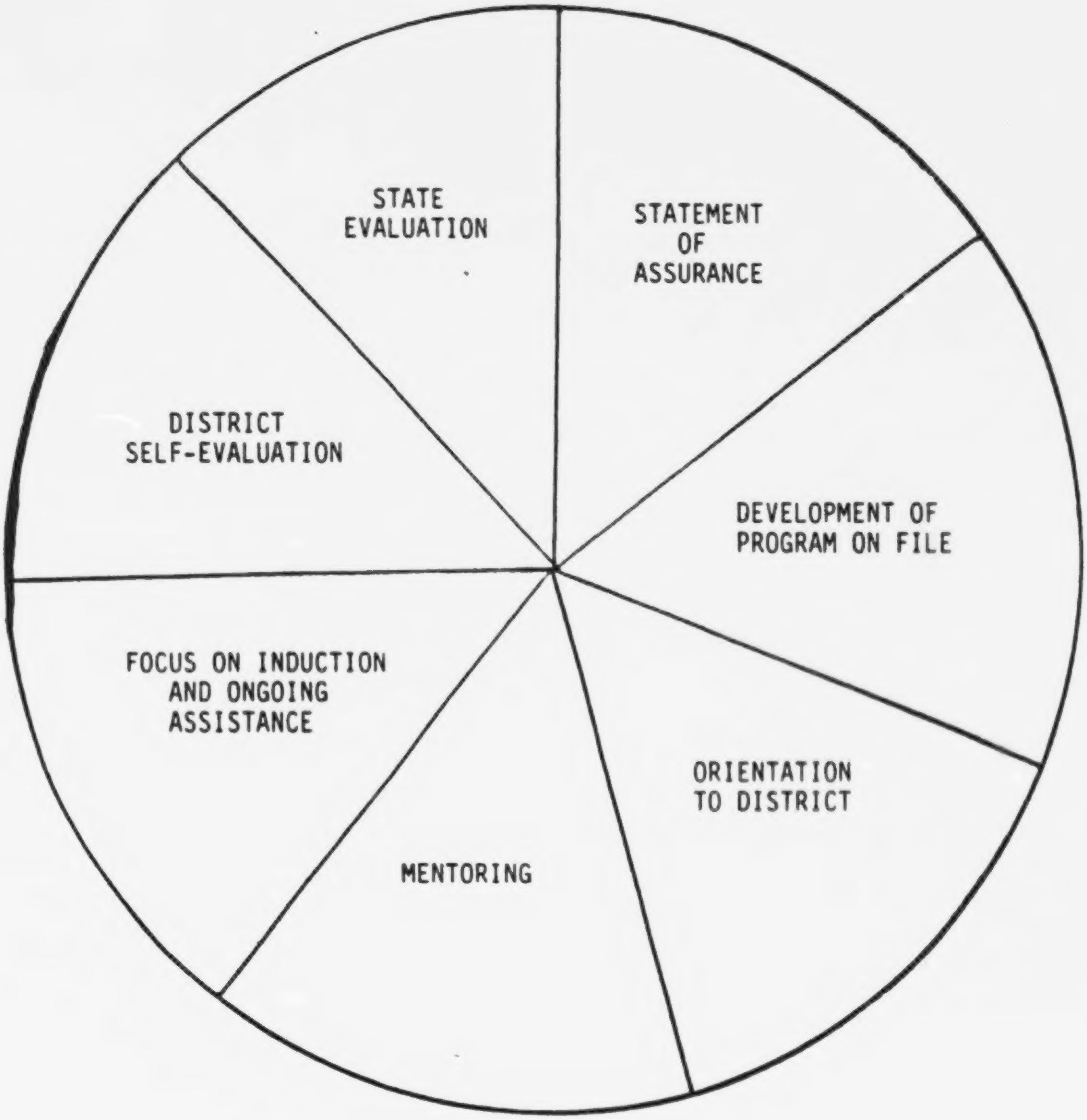
STATE EVALUATION
STATEMENT OF ASSURANCE
DISTRICT SELF-EVALUATION
DEVELOPMENT OF PROGRAM ON FILE
FOCUS ON INDUCTION AND ONGOING ASSISTANCE
ORIENTATION TO DISTRICT
MENTORING

FIGURE 1.1 Components of the Ohio Entry Year Standard (Administrative Code, Rule 3301-22-02)

The Entry Year Standard has grown from a perceived need by practitioners across the state of Ohio who worked with the Department of Education to design approaches to helping beginning colleagues. The individual features of the Entry Year Program reflect the concerns of school personnel who want to see educational improvement through the improvement of leaders.

A significant part of the Entry Year Standard calls for the designation of experienced administrators to serve as career guides or mentors for beginning school administrators. It is desirable that mentors should have had successful experience in the specific roles in which they are mentoring. Mentors must be provided with sufficient training and time so that they can carry out their mentoring duties successfully.

Two primary issues underly the enactment of the Entry Year Standard:

1. There is a clear recognition that, in the next few years, there will be a need for many new school administrators to enter the field. For example, the Ohio Association of Elementary School Administrators has noted that as many as 50% of the state's elementary school principals may retire by 1990. It is possible that this turnover will not be quite this high, but it is clear that many newly-hired principals will be called upon to join the field in the next few years.

2. The second issue addresses the concern that many realities facing a new administrator cannot be addressed within a college or university atmosphere, but need to be learned on the job. There must be planned learning experiences provided to people when they take their first jobs, or there will continue to be significant problems with "reality shock" during the first year.

There is no single "Entry Year Model" that has been mandated for adoption across the state of Ohio. Beginning administrators encounter unique problems on the job. School systems are expected to look at their own needs, characteristics, and priorities as a way to devise programs that fit the needs of their particular districts. This lack of prescription has led to some frustration on the part of some leaders across the state as they attempt to fulfill the state mandate. This Resource Guide will not provide a definitive answer to those questions. It will, however, address some of the important issues surrounding the development of an effective entry year program for school administrators.

The actual Entry Year Standard for the state of Ohio follows:

3301-22-02. ENTRY YEAR STANDARD

(A) DEFINITIONS

(1) "Entry Year Program" means a program of support provided by a school district pursuant to this rule to meet the unique needs of an individual in the first year of employment under a classroom teaching certificate or an educational personnel certificate.

(2) "Mentor" means a person assigned to provide professional support to an individual in the first year of employment under a classroom teaching certificate or an educational personnel certificate.

(B) REQUIREMENTS FOR AN ENTRY YEAR PROGRAM FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS AND EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL. THE ENTRY YEAR PROGRAM SHALL BE IMPLEMENTED IN ACCORDANCE WITH ADOPTED POLICIES WHICH ADDRESS PARAGRAPHS (B) (1) TO (B) (3) OF THIS RULE.

(1) Organization

(a) A statement of assurances, signed by the superintendent of the school district and filed with the Ohio Department of Education, shall indicate that the entry year program is provided in accordance with this rule for each person in the first year of employment under a classroom teaching certificate or an educational personnel certificate.

(b) A cooperative entry year program may be established with other school districts, provided the program is approved by the board of education of each participating school district.

(c) Provisions shall be made for the participation of currently employed experienced teachers in the planning of components of the entry year program which directly affect entry year classroom teachers.

(d) Provisions shall be made for the participation of currently employed experienced educational personnel in the planning of components of the entry year program which directly affect entry year persons employed under educational personnel certificates.

(e) Provisions may be made for the participation of one or more agencies, consultants, professional associations, and teacher preparation institutions in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of the entry year program.

(f) Criteria and procedures for selecting and assigning mentors shall be included in the plan for the entry year program.

(g) A description of the entry year program shall be on file at the office of the superintendent of the school district.

(h) At least one full-time equivalent mentor shall be assigned for each fourteen full-time equivalent first year individuals employed under a classroom teaching certificate or an educational personnel certificate.

(2) STRUCTURE

(a) Each entry year person shall be assigned a mentor for a period of one school year.

(b) Each entry year person shall be given an initial orientation on the following matters: (i) the pupils and the community to be served; (ii) school policies, procedures, and routines; (iii) courses of study, competency-based education programs, and responsibilities for lesson plans; (iv) the layout and facilities of the assigned school building or buildings; (v) the nature of the entry year program which will be provided; and (vi) additional information an entry year person may need to be adequately prepared for a specific assignment.

(c) Each entry year classroom teacher shall be provided with the following: (i) assistance in acquiring knowledge of the school curriculum, responsibilities for implementing that curriculum, and the instructional resources available for such implementation; (ii) assistance with management tasks identified as especially difficult for entry-year classroom teachers; and (iii) assistance in the improvement of instructional skills and classroom management.

(d) Educational personnel shall be provided ongoing assistance, with such assistance differentiated to provide for professional needs related to the specific assignment.

(e) A mentor assigned to an entry year classroom teacher or teachers shall be employed under a classroom teaching certificate, unless otherwise agreed to by the entry year classroom teacher or teachers.

(f) A mentor assigned to an entry year person or persons employed under a specific educational personnel certificate shall hold a similar educational personnel certificate, unless otherwise agreed to by the entry year person or persons.

(g) Mentors shall possess the following eligibility requirements: (i) experience and certification appropriate to the assignment of the entry year person or persons; (ii) knowledge, skills, attitudes, or values deemed essential for becoming an effective mentor.

(h) Mentors shall be provided with the following: (i) an orientation to mentoring responsibilities; (ii) training in knowledge and skills necessary to perform mentoring responsibilities; and (iii) opportunities to consult with and otherwise assist the assigned entry year person or persons on a regular basis, with adequate time within the instructional day allocated for such consultation and assistance.

(3) EVALUATION AND REVISION

(a) The school district shall evaluate the entry year program at least every five years. Program administrators, mentors, and entry year persons shall be involved in the evaluation.

(b) Program revisions shall be documented through the attachment of an addendum to the original program plan or through the creation on a new program plan.

(4) AN ON-SITE EVALUATION OF THE ENTRY YEAR PROGRAM SHALL BE CONDUCTED ONCE EVERY FIVE YEARS BY THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO DETERMINE COMPLIANCE WITH THIS RULE.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the Ohio Entry Standard was presented. The Standard is the product of a considerable amount of ongoing dialogue between the Ohio Department of Education and practitioners in the field who have been strong proponents of specialized learning programs designed to assist beginning educators with their first difficult years on the job. While the Standard exists to serve the needs of all beginning educators in Ohio, the special focus of this Resource Guide will be on the role of the school administrator.

CHAPTER 2

BEGINNING SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

One of the clear underlying assumptions in the Ohio Entry Year Standard is that beginners in any field need additional support and guidance as they first move into new professional roles. That logic is a strong feature of the expectation that planned learning experiences should be made available to school administrators during their first year of service.

Beyond that basic sense that newcomers need support, additional information can help in planning effective learning programs for those who have just moved into the administrator's office for the first time. This information comes from two primary sources: recently conducted research on beginning administrators, and a variety of frameworks which help conceptualize the needs of beginning school administrators.

RESEARCH ON BEGINNING ADMINISTRATORS

A review of existing research on problems encountered by beginning administrators indicates that there is a major difference between the needs of teachers and administrators. Scholars have traditionally not spent much time looking at the issue of how people become administrators; instead, research has more typically been directed at what practicing administrators do -- or are supposed to do -- on the job. Despite this limitation on the quantity of data, there are some fairly strong statements that emerge related to how people move into administration.

The research-based information that is available concerning initial socialization to educational administration makes it clear that any type of support, such as formalized entry year programs, would be a welcome addition to the scene.

Only sporadically have activities been designed to assist new administrators to come "on board." Among some of the most recent investigations completed have been small-scale studies conducted by Nockels (1981) and Turner (1981), and doctoral research by Marrion (1983), Sussman (1985), and Diederich (1988). A common finding in all of these works, and also in a broader study by Duke (1986), has been that the administrative entry year may be best characterized as a time filled with considerable anxiety, frustration, and self-doubt.

Another study of a considerably wider scale was the work recently done in England by Weindling and Earley (1987). This ambitious project reviewed the characteristics of the first years of secondary school head teachers (principals) throughout the United Kingdom. Surveys and interviews were carried out to gain information from beginning principals, their teaching staffs, and their administrative superiors regarding the ways in which principals were frustrated in their new positions. Among the many recommendations that came from this study was that beginning principals need to receive special consideration and support from their employing school systems. Weindling and Earley noted that a major problem for head teachers has been isolation from peers. As a result of this, some ways need to be found to reduce the sense of isolation that tends to be felt so strongly by novice administrators.

In a recent study of beginning principals in Ohio, Daresh (1986) found that administrators' concerns may be seen in three distinct areas. These were (a) problems with role clarification (understanding who they were, now that they were principals, and how they were supposed to make use of their authority); (b) limitations on technical expertise (how to do the things they were supposed to do, according to job descriptions); and (c) difficulties with socialization to the profession and individual school systems (learning how to do things in a particular setting--"learning the ropes"). Dan Duke found many of these same themes to be present in his recent study (1988) of new principals who were considering leaving the principalship, despite the fact that they were generally viewed as being quite effective in their roles. In particular, Duke found that these administrators experienced considerable frustration over the fact that they did not understand the nature of leadership responsibilities.

Most studies of beginning administrators have found a rather consistent set of themes that have obvious implications for the ways in which individuals might be better prepared to take on leadership roles in schools. It seems clear, for example, that people should receive a good deal of "hands on" learning of administrative tasks and responsibilities before they ever get to their first job. Universities, as the agencies traditionally charged with the duty for preservice preparation of administrators, need to find more ways to help people develop skill and confidence about their work before signing their first administrative contracts. Second, entry year or induction programs need to stress the development of strong norms of collegiality within those who are taking their first administrative jobs so that there can be a realization that a school administrator will rarely be effective by trying to "go at it alone." A lesson that needs to be learned early in a person's career is that success as a school administrator is often based on the ability to seek support from many people. Third, entry year programs must include a component where people are able to test some of their fundamental assumptions and beliefs concerning the nature of power, authority, and leadership as they step into a principalship or some other administrative role.

In general, there is not a rich tradition of research into the problems faced by newcomers to the world of school administration. What is known, however, provides some useful insights into the fact that beginners need special assistance and support, and that help should be directed toward some fairly clear and consistent themes. All of this should be seen as a supplement to the kinds of things that local school systems determine to be needs for beginning administrators.

In a project sponsored by the Oregon School Study Council, Anderson (1988) set out to identify what some of the most important themes related to the design of induction programs for school administrators. Anderson synthesized many research findings to develop the following list of recommended practices for school systems that are interested in establishing research-based entry year programs for administrative personnel:

1. Entry year programs will be more effective if they are initiated in conjunction with locally-developed preservice preparation activities that are carried out for aspiring administrators that are identified in individual school systems.
2. Local school systems which have in place sophisticated techniques designed to identify and select talented future administrators tend to have more effective programs for beginning administrators.
3. Entry year programs need to include comprehensive activities designed to orient new administrators to the characteristics of particular school systems.
4. Mentor systems designed specifically for the needs of beginning principals -- and not adaptations of teacher mentor programs -- are critical components of successful entry year and induction programs.
5. Effective entry year programs encourage and facilitate reflective activities. Beginning principals as well as successful veterans are provided opportunities to observe each other as a way to reduce newcomer isolation and improve their work through a process of peer support and observation. Such activities need to provide time for reflective analysis between participants.
6. Successful induction efforts are part of more comprehensive district-wide programs designed to encourage professional growth and development for all administrative personnel.
7. Entry year problems of administrators are minimized in school systems where there has been a conscious effort to structure beginners' workloads so that they would have sufficient time to work in their buildings to develop productive working relationships with staff, students, and parents. School districts should take care not to immerse newly-hired principals in a bewildering array of special district projects and committees.
8. Beginning principals have a special need for frequent, specific, and accurate feedback about their performance. Furthermore, this feedback should be of a highly constructive nature that is made available regularly throughout the school year -- not only near the end of a person's first contract year.

These eight ingredients of an effective entry year program are derived from existing research on this topic. Other sources are available to help guide planners of induction programs by providing some insights into the issue of "what" shall be included in an administrative entry year program.

CRITICAL NEEDS: ALTERNATIVE FRAMEWORKS

In addition to the general areas of concern for beginning administrators that have been identified through the research, there are some additional listings of specific critical skills needed by new leaders. Each of these lists of skills further support the notion that some kinds of specialized entry year training activities are needed.

Edwin Schiller, Assistant Superintendent of the Ross County Schools in Ohio, recently asked experienced administrators in his region to list some of the most important things that they believed beginning principals needed to know in order to perform their job effectively:

1. The need to develop familiarity with local district policy manuals, regulations, and the terms and conditions found in districts' negotiated agreements.
2. Knowledge concerning the availability of special education and other special students' support programs. Particular emphasis should be placed on the identification of appropriate resource personnel.
3. Awareness of general principles of effective legal processes related to student and staff personnel issues. Among the specific topics needing focused attention are in the areas of due process concerns and discipline procedures.
4. Knowledge of effective staff evaluation procedures, both in general terms and in relation to local school system practices.
5. Appreciation of more effective relationships between administrators and students, parents, and staff members.
6. Awareness of strategies that may be utilized to encourage greater professional involvement of staff.
7. Development of general organizational skills.

A similar effort was also carried out by the faculty of Administrative and Educational Leadership at the University of Alabama who worked with school leaders across the state to identify "survival skills" that are typically needed by beginning school administrators. Eight general areas of concern were identified, along with several suggested specific competencies associated with each skill area.

AREA I: LEADERSHIP

1. Plan and conduct a small group activity.
2. Write an article about a phase of the school program for publication in the local newspaper.
3. Present a program to the faculty based on the "effective schools research."
4. Develop a faculty handbook.
5. Carry out effective student-parent conferences.
6. Prepare and deliver a speech to a local civic club.
7. Interview prospective teachers.
8. Prepare operational plans for the opening of the school.

AREA II: PLANNING

1. Develop a student master schedule.
2. Apply systematic planning concepts to specific school problems.
3. Develop forms and procedures for reporting unusual incidents that may occur in the school.
4. Develop a proposed school calendar for the school year.

AREA III: INSTRUCTION

1. Develop a plan for evaluating the instructional program of the school.
2. Demonstrate the use of purposeful classroom observation that is designed to improve instruction.
3. Be able to demonstrate effective classroom management techniques to the faculty.
4. Plan and conduct an inservice session for faculty on the proper interpretation and use of standardized achievement tests.

AREA IV: PERSONNEL

1. Demonstrate knowledge of certification requirements for teachers.
2. Plan and conduct interviews with teacher applicants.

AREA V: LAW

1. Demonstrate a knowledge of basic features of procedural due process as it relates to student and staff personnel issues.
2. Demonstrate understanding of the basic features of the local negotiated agreement between the school board and the teachers' association.
3. Demonstrate knowledge of PL 94-142 by explaining regulations to staff.

AREA VI: FINANCE

1. Understand local school accounting procedures.
2. Keep accurate records of building level accounts.

AREA VII: FACILITIES

1. Develop a plan for energy conservation in the local school building.
2. Develop an emergency evacuation plan for the school.
3. Carry out an inservice session for janitorial and custodial employees.

AREA VIII: COMMUNITY RELATIONS

1. Develop a community relations plan for the local school building.
2. Develop a plan to work effectively with community pressure groups and professional organizations.

A third useful framework suggested by Rogus and Drury (1988) might also be looked at by designers of administrative induction programs. They suggest that beginning administrators should be able to:

1. Demonstrate understandings of system expectations, procedures, and resources.
2. Demonstrate increased competence and comfort in addressing building or unit outcomes or concerns.
3. Enhance their personal/professional growth.
4. Develop a personal support system.
5. Receive personalized assistance in coping with building/unit problems.
6. Receive formative feedback and assistance toward strengthening their administrative performance.

During the 1987-88 school year, representatives of the 17 institutions in the state of Ohio chartered to prepare school administrators, the Ohio Department of Education, and the professional associations representing principals, superintendents, and school board members met periodically with support from the LEAD Center of Ohio. As part of its continuing discussions, the "LEAD Forum" identified a wide array of special critical skills for entry year administrators:

1. Assessing the Climate
    - Human relations skills
    - Communications skills
    - Leadership style appreciation
    - Understanding political structures

2. Orientation
    - Basic administrative skills
    - Problem solving skills
    - Local procedures and expectations

3. Individual Assessment
    - Continuous assessment of the individual on the job (internal to the organization by supervisors or colleagues, or through external sources such as school visitors, community representatives or parents)
    - Specialized skills development (the identification of new skills needed to accomplish more completely those job tasks and responsibilities for the present and the future)

One additional framework that has great potential for helping planners of administrative entry year programs decide the types of skills that might be needed by effective practitioners has been developed as part of the work of the Maryland LEAD Center (1988). Among the skill areas identified in this work were interpersonal relations, instructional supervision, staff development, goal setting, problem analysis, decision making, communication, coordination, conflict management, and stress management.

All five of these frameworks have in common the fact that they represent needs of beginning administrators from the perspective of the skills and behaviors that may serve to guarantee success, or at least survival, in organizations. They are what the school needs or expects in terms of performance. Needs have not been discussed from the viewpoint of personal concerns faced by people who serve in administrative roles. There has been considerable discussion regarding the developmental characteristics of classroom teachers at different points of their careers, and the types of training needs that may be useful in addressing these characteristics. Fuller (1968) and Hall (1976) have suggested that inservice education should be matched with developmental needs and concerns. A good entry year program for administrators must take into account varying individual needs, as well as organizational priorities.

All the lists provided here of job-related skills may be seen as excellent ideas to be used as starting points for the development of the curriculum for an entry year program. Remembering that local concerns and conditions might differ considerably across the state, a particular school system might have very different expectations regarding the desired performance of new administrators.

Before starting an entry year program, planners are encouraged to carry out their own research regarding the types of skills, knowledge, and attitudes that are considered appropriate.

Entry year programs are more than simply helping people to acquire and demonstrate discrete skills that appear on a list. Effective induction programs should be designed in a way that makes use of identified skill areas that can serve as a guide to the development of more expansive programs to address more holistic concerns of beginning administrators. In other words, if entry year programs become exclusively geared to the development of programs and strategies that are to be followed in "surviving" the first year of administrative service, a system will be created where survivors thrive. Instead, a system should be fostered that will lead to strong and effective leadership in schools.

REFLECTION

Special programs designed to support the work of beginning administrators are clearly needed. Evidence in the research shows that novice school leaders will be served well when efforts are made to help them through their first professional duties. But, there are limitations to the value of formal induction programs. For example, entry year programs can never serve to repair total imcompetence. School districts must continue to be careful about finding and selecting only the most talented individuals for administrative roles. No induction program can be designed to "fix" bad choices.

Entry year programs must be part of comprehensive professional development efforts. Huling-Austin (1986) observed that induction programs for beginning educators will likely fail to reach their full positive potential if they are developed solely as a way to comply with the minimum requirements of a mandated program. Entry year efforts will only be successful if they are viewed as a foundation upon which school districts set out to build total professional development programs that are designed to meet the needs not only of beginning administrators, but of all district administrators.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

An effective entry year program for beginning school administrators can be built upon a solid research base. In this chapter, some of the findings of recent studies which may serve as the foundation for effective induction efforts were offered. In addition, the existence of several alternative frameworks which present locally-developed lists of "critical needs" for novice principals and other administrators were noted. These lists may also provide important information concerning the content of entry year programs.

CHAPTER 3

BASIC FEATURES OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

As noted in the last chapter, an emphasis on entry year programs for administrators has a better chance of being effective if it is part of a larger view of the need to provide ongoing professional development activities. If the entry year is viewed as something that is addressed in isolation from learning activities throughout a person's career, all of what is described throughout this Resource Guide will not be much help.

Conceptually, the entry year is but one element of a comprehensive program of professional development. In addition to entry year or induction concerns, there are also periods of preservice preparation and ongoing inservice education. In this chapter, the characteristics of each of these three phases are reviewed as a way to indicate how some interrelationships must be achieved for effective professional development. The model presented in Figure 3.1 represents a view of the three stages that must be addressed in a comprehensive program of professional development.

FIGURE 3.1

PRESERVICE PREPARATION

One of the basic assumptions throughout this Resource Guide is that entry year programs can help individuals who need some extra help at the beginning stages of their careers. Entry year programs cannot be viewed as ways to repair

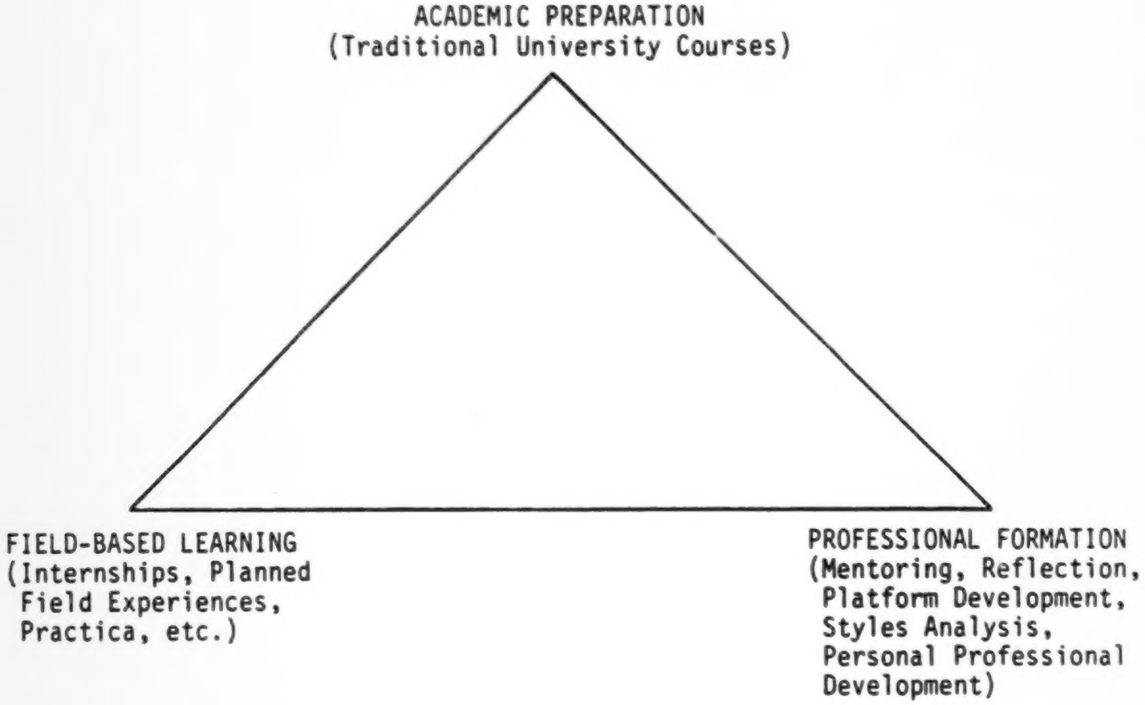
ACADEMIC PREPARATION
(Traditional University Courses)
FIELD-BASED LEARNING
(Internships, Planned Field Experiences, Practica, etc.)
PROFESSIONAL FORMATION
(Mentoring, Reflection, Platform Development, Styles Analysis, Personal Professional Development)

FIGURE 3.1 Three dimensions included in a framework describing the professional development of school administrators.

wholly deficient or incompetent individuals who learned little through their preservice preparation experiences.

Professional development begins with an initial training in their selected field of practice. In professional education, this usually refers to the undergraduate and graduate level university coursework that is pursued by an individual intending to receive a state certificate permitting entrance to a given occupational role. Future teachers take courses in pedagogy and the content of their teaching field, and aspiring administrators take courses in educational administration and supervision. The exact number of required courses varies from state to state, but the basic practices are relatively the same in all situations across the nation.

Other issues beyond training are typically associated with this preservice phase of professional development. Here, there is also concern about the initial identification, recruitment, and selection of people to move into roles in professional education. In the world of school administration, these concerns have been handled in a somewhat haphazard fashion over the years. People tend to identify themselves and make the personal decision to try their hand at administration. School systems have traditionally not viewed their duty as one of "tapping" people for leadership roles in the future. When such identification has taken place historically, it involved the selection of future administrators for reasons other than for their potential to succeed and make a difference in student learning outcomes. As noted on a number of occasions in Chapter 2, the business of identifying and promoting talented individuals toward careers as school administrators is a critical ingredient for entry year programs. No program to assist beginners will be effective if the "entering material" is not of a high quality.

INDUCTION

The primary interest in this Resource Guide is related to the improvement of activities designed to improve the quality of the entry year program, or the induction of school administrators. The Dayton City Schools (1988) recently developed an entry year program for new principals, and used the following definition to guide their work:

> Induction is defined ... as a process for developing among new members of an occupation the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values essential to carrying out their roles effectively. The aim of induction is to create conditions so that the new members internalize the norms of their role in a way that the primary locus of control is self control.

Another issue considered here deals with whether or not it is really worth the effort to develop an entry year program targeted specifically at the needs of school administrators. After all, why not simply use the same procedures that are designed for teachers in working with beginning administrators? There are a number of unique characteristics associated with the field of school administration that make it necessary for a system to consider this group of educators apart from all others employees. Specifically, one can identify five features of school administration that make it important to separate teacher induction efforts from administrator programs (Daresh and Playko, 1989):

1. The research base on administration is not clear enough to guide entry year programs and mentoring relationships.

As noted in Chapter 2, there is relatively little research that describes very specifically the nature of behaviors of administrators that are associated with effective performance. While this knowledge base is growing, it is not even close to what is now found in the area of teacher education concerning effective teaching behaviors. Without an equivalent research base, it is hard to lead people in entry year programs.

2. Administrators do their jobs in isolation from peers.

Entry year programs designed for teachers can make certain assumptions about the ways in which beginners have access to many colleagues each day who can provide feedback regarding performance on the job. There are many teachers in a school building. By contrast, there is usually no other administrator on duty with a beginning principal, particularly in an elementary school. This results in administrators having very different needs for ongoing entry year support as they work far from their administrative colleagues.

3. "New" administrators are not new to schools.

In Ohio, there is an expectation that administrators have at least three years of teaching experience before taking their first jobs. That amount of time, of course, does nothing to guarantee that an individual becomes sensitive to the demands that accompany an administrator's job. On the other hand, the rookie principal at least knows what a school looks like, how students tend to behave, and what parents are likely to ask or demand. In an entry year program for administrators, there is less need for an initial orientation to the world of schools and professional education.

4. Administrators are bosses.

When people receive administrative assignments, they automatically take on positions of legal and formal authority, power, and control. A school administrator, even on the first day of a job, is a boss who has been appointed by a local governing board to manage a part of the school district's programs and facilities. This makes it somewhat difficult to design programs of support, whether it is for the entry year on the job, or even later in the administrator's career.

5. Administrative "peers" usually are not true equals to the beginner.

Administrators in all districts face the need to understand the "pecking order" in their systems among the school administrative personnel. Although all principals appear to be the same on the organizational chart, the fact is that some have greater influence than do others. Entry year programs which assume that all administrators are equal, deny a reality of organizational life found in school systems.

INSERVICE EDUCATION

Two generalizations might be derived from the vast amount of material written about inservice education and staff development. First, the majority deals with staff development and inservice education exclusively for teachers. In a recent review of the literature of this topic, Daresh (1987) discovered that less than 10% of the recent research has dealt with inservice for school administrators. Second, literature on staff development other than doctoral dissertations is not research-based and tends to provide descriptions of the localized experiences of practitioners. There are many descriptions of what appear to work in District X and District Y. Despite this situation, enough has been produced to enable a number of reviewers (Lawrence, 1974; Nicholson, et al., 1976; Paul, 1977; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978, 1978; Hutson, 1981) to extract generalizable propositions regarding the planning and implementation of effective inservice education:

1. Effective inservice is directed toward local school needs.
2. Inservice participants need to be involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of programs.
3. Effective inservice is based on participant needs.
4. Active learning processes, rather than passive techniques such as lectures, are viewed as desirable and effective inservice instructional modes.
5. Inservice that is part of a long-term systematic staff development plan is more effective than a "one-shot," short-term program.
6. Local school inservice must be backed up by commitment of resources from the central office.
7. Effective inservice provides evidence of quality control, and is delivered by quality presenters.
8. Programs which enable participants to share ideas and provide assistance to one another are viewed as successful.
9. Inservice programs are effective when they are designed so that individual participant needs, interests, and concerns are addressed.
10. Rewards and incentives, both intrinsic and extrinsic, must be evident to program participants.
11. Inservice activities should be provided during school time.
12. Effective inservice requires ongoing evaluation.

While the research base from which these generalizations come is predominantly involved with teacher inservice, these features are also descriptive of what should be the structure of administrator inservice opportunities. Inservice for administrators will be more effective if participants are able to select learning objectives or activities, and if inservice programs are competently designed.

Administrator inservice comes in many different forms. Daresh and LaPlant (1983) identified five generic models of administrator inservice which are generally available to practitioners: traditional model, institutes, competency-based programs, the academy, and networking. Each has its own particular advantages and disadvantages with regard to potential effectiveness as inservice learning opportunities.

TRADITIONAL MODEL

This model consists of administrators enrolling in university courses. The primary responsibility for determining the content and procedures in this approach is with the university. Administrators select this model based on a desire to pursue course work in an area of particular professional interest, to obtain an advanced graduate degree, or to renew or upgrade certification.

INSTITUTES

The institute consists of a short-term, topic-specific learning experience. Practicing administrators are bombarded almost daily with numerous opportunities to participate in institutes sponsored by professional associations and private consultants. Thus, the pervasiveness of the availability of institutes is such that it cannot be ignored as a type of planned learning experience that may have great impact on inservice for school administrators.

COMPETENCY-BASED TRAINING

In its broadest sense, competency-based administrator training can provide a useful framework of knowledge, attitudes and skills toward which an effective school leader may strive. There are currently some competency-based programs with great potential for use as administrator inservice strategies. One is the Assessment Center of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (Schmitt, 1980) which suggests that persons possessing skills in problem analysis, judgment, organizational ability, decisiveness, leadership, sensitivity, range of interests, personal motivation, stress tolerance, values clarification, and oral and written communication skills make the best candidates for administrative positions.

THE ACADEMY

A fourth approach is the academy, an arrangement wherein a school district or state education agency provides structured learning experiences to educators on an ongoing basis. It is an "in-house" institute sponsored by and for practitioners without reliance on outside agencies. Many large city school districts have long had such programs.

NETWORKING

Networking may be defined as the linking of individuals for the purpose of sharing concerns on an ongoing basis. Here, the primary control of the learning experience rests with participants themselves. Networks are informal arrangements that emerge as the result of administrators seeking colleagues sharing similar concerns and potential solutions to problems. For specific examples, one might take a look at Project Leadership or the Principals' Inservice Program.

Each of these models has some clear strengths and weaknesses. The inservice phase of any administrator's professional development might include one or more of these types of activities.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, some basic concepts related to a comprehensive vision of professional development for administrators were reviewed. The purpose of this overview was to note that, while the primary focus in this Resource Guide is specifically on the entry year, such a focus must also recognize that induction is but one part of a larger developmental process that school administrators go through during their careers. Other phases included in this process include preservice preparation and eventually, ongoing inservice education. Entry year programs will ultimately be no better than the extent to which they are able to fit these other stages. Entry year programs cannot "fix" poor preservice preparation, and they are far more beneficial if they are followed by a long-term commitment to continuing support and learning opportunities for practicing administrators. Again, if entry year programs are designed only as a way to comply with state standards, they will never reach their potential effectiveness.

CHAPTER 4

DEVELOPING A PLAN

Whenever any new program such as the administrative entry year program is to be formulated, developed, and implemented into a school system, certain sequential procedures must take place in order for the program to be accepted by school personnel, thus increasing its likelihood of being successful. This chapter discusses a model that may be used in local school systems for developing an entry year program. In addition, it presents an outline to assist planners of local entry year programs with the design, adoption, and eventual evaluation of written entry year support programs.

A MODEL FOR DEVELOPING AN ADMINISTRATIVE ENTRY YEAR PROGRAM

The model presented in Figure 4.1 is a variation of a model for developing inservice education programs that is presented by the Ohio Department of Education's Division of Inservice Education in its publication, Staff Development Leadership: A Resource Book. As is true for designs for effective inservice education, the entry year program is cyclical in nature. It fits a planning model which consists of nine steps which can be followed when developing support programs for all entry year educational personnel.

FIGURE 4.1

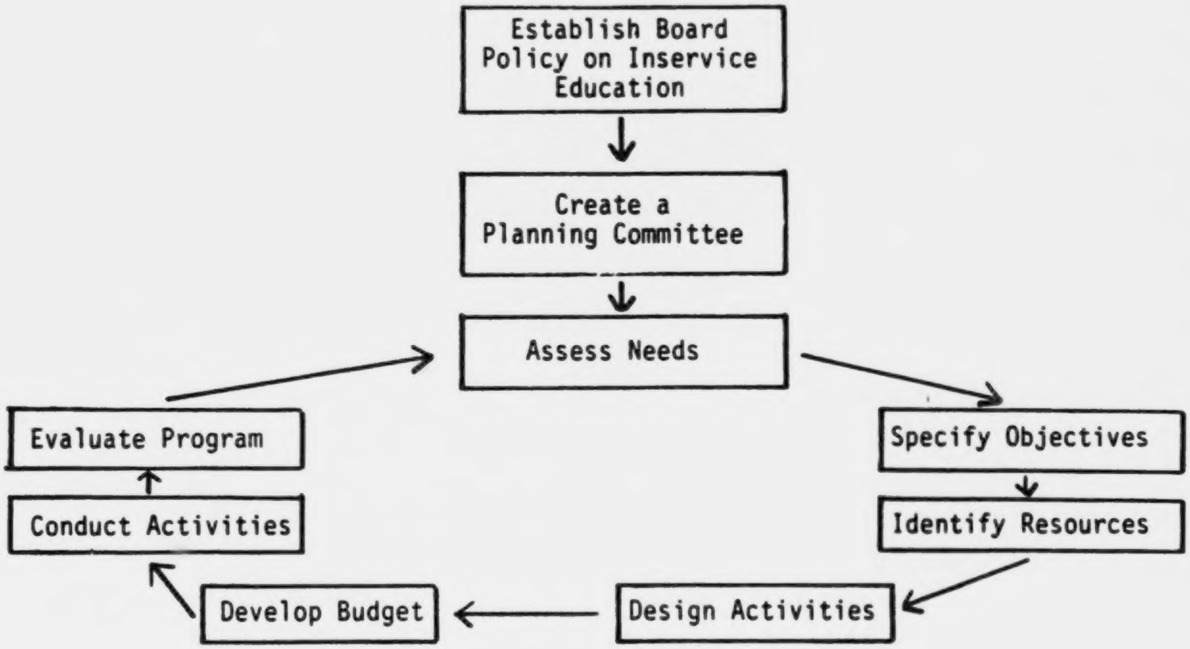
Establish Board Policy on Inservice Education
Create a Planning Committee
Assess Needs
Specify Objectives
Identify Resources
Design Activities
Develop Budget
Conduct Activities
Evaluate Program

Figure 4.1 The Planning Guide's Nine Steps

Establish Board Policy For Entry Year Program

Local school board policy should include a statement of purpose consistent with the terms of Ohio's Entry Year Standard as stated in Rule 3301-22-02. In this regard, a steering committee must be established to assist the superintendent in preparing a proposal for board consideration.

A statement of purpose and rationale or philosophy are also typically associated with board policy. A statement of purpose declares the intent of the local entry year program. It can be as brief as a single sentence. The program rationale or philosophy provides a logical explanation of why the entry year program is needed and puts forward the principles upon which the entry year program is based. It is typically several paragraphs in length. Part of the rationale usually consists of statements of belief about areas relevant to an entry year program. Beliefs about effective schools, effective teaching, the importance of strong administrative leadership, professional collaboration and mentoring, a focus on induction and ongoing assistance, adult learning, effective inservice education, leadership, and professional development could all be stated in the program philosophy.

Logical implications for the entry year program can be drawn from general belief statements like those referred to above and stated as part of the program rationale. A belief that adults learn best when they are allowed to participate in planning their learning activities, for example, could lead to a statement that all first year educational personnel should be allowed to collaborate in planning for entry year support activities.

The statement of purpose and program rationale can be part of the board policy or addendums to the policy. The board policy statement signifies the school board's commitment to the entry year program and eventually provides the program development team with a foundation upon which to build the induction program.

Create An Entry Year Program Development Team

After a school board statement of support has been obtained, a critical first step in the creation of an effective local entry year program involves the creation of a Program Development Team. Many decisions need to be made relative to this team. Perhaps the most fundamental involves the determination of whether one team shall be created to develop entry year programs for all newly-hired educators for a school system, or if there will be separate groups convened for each group (i.e., one for teachers, one for administrators, etc.). There are advantages and disadvantages found in either approach.

If the decision has been made to have one group represent the interests of all entry year personnel for the district, that group should include at least one representative of the type of roles that are to be addressed through the local program, both at present and in the future. Each individual is charged with the responsibility of representing their constituent groups and suggesting activities for the entry year that best reflects the needs of the represented roles. This makes a good deal of sense up to the point that one must think about the potential large size of such a team.

Because the group that will likely be hired more frequently than any other will be the classroom teacher, the development team should probably include a substantially higher percentage of teachers. In addition, the fact that administrators might be hired at the central office as well as the building levels, the development team should also include representatives of both levels. As a result of all of these issues, the entry year development team formed to work on all types of entry year programs might be quite large--too large, in fact--if it is formed in a way that it can address all possible needs of the district in the present and in the future.

An alternative arrangement might be to convene multiple entry year committees to reflect more accurately the particular hiring realities for a school district at any one time. In some school systems, the only individuals hired for several years may be classroom teachers. Three, four, or many more years may pass before a school system brings a new principal on board. It may be much more practical, then, for a district to develop more than one planning committee to address specialized needs as new people are hired. This does not necessarily imply that committees should not include anyone but representatives of the newly-hired role, however. Committees addressing beginning teachers' needs could also include administrative and supervisory personnel, and teachers might be involved with the design of entry year experiences for principals.

One compromise solution to this issue might be that, as school districts across Ohio first establish local responses to the Entry Year Standard, one development committee representing all parties might establish initial ground rules. This group could also involve parents and other respresentatives of the community. After the initial framework for entry year programs has been established, planning teams with special expertise in a particular role might then be established to work on the details of particular entry year needs. Each school system must select a particular approach related to the composition of one development committee or various specialized development committees, and the selection should be made based on local concerns, conditions, and realities.

Conduct Preliminary Assessment

The first group of entry year administrators to be served by an induction program will not be available for a needs assessment during the early phase of the program development. Furthermore, some school districts may not have identified participants at this early stage of program development. As a result, a specific needs assessment of these two groups is not feasible at this point.

Much information is available to use in determining general induction needs. Educational personnel who are currently in their second year in a new position may be seen as valuable sources of information. The research base on beginning administrators and also the frameworks of critical needs included in Chapter 2 of this Resource Guide may be consulted as a useful source of information. Principals and other educational leaders can describe typical problems experienced by beginning colleagues with whom they have worked. The philosophy, policies, curriculum, resources, norms, and customs of the school district all indicate areas where first year employees may need special assistance and support in meeting those needs.

Literature, research on common entry year problems, and this Resource Guide can all provide purposes and formats that might be followed in the establishment of an entry year support program. Eventually, specific needs assessments can be administered to mentors and the entry year educator participating in the induction program.

Specify Goals and Objectives

The two primary sources for developing program goals are school district needs, and needs of entry year administrators and "other educational personnel." One task of the program development is to integrate these two types of needs into a set of broad goals.

Program objectives are more specific than goals. Several objectives are usually stated under each goal. Objectives should be stated in observable, measurable terms. The program development team may decide to delay setting some program objectives until after the particular needs of the first group of entry year administrators entering the induction program has been assessed.

Objectives are often prioritized so that limited resources and activities can be directed first toward meeting those objectives deemed most essential.

Identify Resources

Human resources can include university and private consultants as well as local school district personnel who may have interest and expertise in working with the entry year program. Material resources include facilities (meeting rooms, resource centers), equipment (videotape equipment, film projectors, overheads), and consumables (paper, pencils, notebooks). The program development team has the task of identifying the resources that are needed and which can be matched with program goals.

Design Program

The entry year program needs to be articulated in a written plan which will state expected matches between induction resources and activities with program objectives. Sufficient flexibility will enable emerging needs to be met. An outline to assist the program development team design an entry year support plan is provided later in this chapter.

Develop Budget

The next component of the model calls for the allocation of funds to purchase resources required by the written plan but which are not already at hand. Typical categories in an entry year program budget include salaries, benefits or incentives, purchased services, supplies and materials, release time, and equipment.

Implement Program

The successful implementation of the program requires ongoing organizational, technical, and interpersonal support. It is suggested that the program development team (or teams) be kept in place for the purpose of ongoing evaluation and development of the entry year program. Teams should be able to recommend revisions to the program if ongoing formative evaluation reveals necessary changes. While the establishment of a definite framework for the entry year program is important, central office personnel and mentors should be allowed the flexibility to meet the unique and idiosyncratic needs of individual beginning administrators and other educational personnel which might arise during program implementation.

Evaluate Program

Ohio's entry year standard calls for a summative and formal program evaluation at least once each five years. An evaluation addressed on the program plan and beginning with the initiation of the entry year program is the most desirable. Not only program outcomes but the program plan, needs assessments, and program implementation can be evaluated. A formal evaluation at the end of the first year of the program will allow revisions to be made over the summer, and it is likely to result in a far more effective program during the second year. Evaluation, revision, and implementation are best viewed as parts of a continual cycle for improvement of the entry year support program or induction program.

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DESIGNING AND EVALUATING A WRITTEN ENTRY YEAR SUPPORT PLAN

Each major heading of the following outline represents a suggested component of a written entry year support plan. The 14 suggested components are summarized, and the elements under each heading can be used by the program development team for ongoing evaluation of the plan during the writing process (Gordon, 1987):

I. Definitions
II. Purpose
III. Rationale
IV. Goals and Objectives
V. Roles and Responsibilities
VI. Mentor Selection
VII. Mentor Training
VIII. Mentor Support and Rewards
IX. Mentor Assignments
X. Professional Development Activities for Entry Year Administrators
XI. Specific Needs Assessments and Program Modifications
XII. Program Evaluation and Revision
XIII. Dissemination
XIV. Program Budget

Outline Detail

I. Definitions

  A. Are critical terms used in the entry year support plan clearly defined?

  B. Is the use of terms throughout the entry year support plan consistent with their definitions?

II. Purpose

- A. Is there a statement of purpose?
- B. Is the purpose compatible with
    - 1. Ohio's entry year standard Rule 3301-22-02?
    - 2. The school board's general philosophy of education?
    - 3. Other purposes of the school district's staff development program?

III. Rationale or Philosophy

- A. Are fundamental reasons for the existence of the entry year program stated?
- B. Does the rationale include statements of belief concerning areas relative to entry year support?
    - 1. Does each such statement of belief have an empirical or rational basis?
    - 2. Are statements of belief compatible with each?
- C. Does the rationale include specific implications of stated beliefs for entry year support?
    - 1. Do the specific implications flow logically from the general belief?
    - 2. Are the implications compatible with each other?
- D. Is the rationale compatible with
    - 1. Ohio's entry year standard?
    - 2. The school board's general philosophy of education?
    - 3. The school board's philosophy of staff development?
    - 4. The purpose of the entry year program?

IV. Goals and Objectives

- A. Are board program goals written?
- B. Are program goals appropriately related to stated needs? (If the goals are met, will needs be met?)
- C. Are specific objectives written relative to each goal?
    - 1. Are objectives appropriately related to goals under which they are categorized? (If the objectives are met, will the goal be met?)

2. Are objectives stated in observable, measurable terms?

D. Are goals and objectives compatible with

1. Each other?

2. Ohio's entry year standard?

3. The school board's general philosophy of education?

4. Goals and objectives of other components of the school district's staff development program?

5. The purpose of the entry year program?

6. The rationale of the entry year program?

E. Does the plan include provisions for revising, adding, or deleting program objectives as a result of needs assessments administered to mentors and entry year administrators after initiation of the entry year programs?

F. Does the plan include provisions for mentors and entry year administrators to set individual objectives?

V. Roles and Responsibilities

A. If the entry year program involves a consortium with a central agency, are the responsibilities of the central agency and the responsibilities of individual school districts clearly defined and differentiated?

B. Are program responsibilities of the school district's central office, building level responsibilities, and responsibilities of other organizations involved in the entry year program clearly defined and differentiated?

C. Are the roles and responsibilities of persons involved in the entry year support program clearly defined? Such persons include:

1. program administrators

2. program developers

3. program evaluators

4. mentor trainers

5. building administrators

6. instructional supervisors

7. program consultants

8. mentors

9. entry year administrators

VI. Mentor Selection

- A. Are eligibility requirements for becoming a mentor stated?
- B. Are procedures for nominating mentors stated?
- C. Are criteria for selecting mentors stated?
- D. Are all elements of the mentor selection component of the plan compatible with:
    - 1. Ohio's entry year standard?
    - 2. The purpose of the entry year program?
    - 3. The rationale of the entry year program?
    - 4. The goals and objectives of the entry year program?

VII. Mentor Training

- A. Is an orientation planned for mentors?
    - 1. Are goals and objectives for mentor orientation listed?
    - 2. Is there a tentative schedule of activities for mentor orientation?
    - 3. Does the plan for mentor orientation include making mentors aware of:
        - a. Their roles and responsibilities?
        - b. Mentor training activities in which they will participate?
        - c. Support, rewards, and incentives for mentors which are part of the entry year program?
        - d. The school district's procedures for evaluating mentor performance?
- B. Is there a plan for preliminary training for new mentors, to be held following mentor orientation and prior to the initiation of mentoring?
    - 1. Are goals and objectives for preliminary mentor training listed?
    - 2. Is there a schedule of activities for preliminary mentor training?
    - 3. Do goals, objectives, and activities in the preliminary mentor training plan focus on knowledge and skills which will be needed by mentors during the first few weeks of mentoring?

C. Is there a plan for long-range mentor training?

    1. Are goals and objectives for long-range mentor training listed?

    2. Is there a schedule of activities for long-range mentor training?

D. Are there plans for mentor orientation, preliminary training for new mentors, and long-range mentor training based on a preliminary needs assessment being developed?

E. Are all elements of the plan for mentor training consistent with:

    1. Ohio's entry year standard?

    2. The purpose of the entry year standard?

    3. The rationale of the entry year program?

    4. The goals and objectives of the entry year program?

F. Are human resources identified to coordinate and implement each planned mentor training activity?

G. Are material resources necessary to carry out mentor training identified?

VII. Mentor Support and Rewards

A. Support and Rewards

    1. Are provisions made for regular group meetings which focus on affective support for mentors?

    2. Is a support person or "coach" identified for each mentor?

    3. Are mentors provided sufficient time to carry out their mentoring responsibilities?

    4. Are provisions made for mentors to receive resources essential for carrying out their mentoring responsibilities?

B. Rewards and Mentors

    1. Are there extrinsic rewards for mentors such as financial rewards or additional release time?

    2. Are there provisions for school district recognition of effective mentor?

    3. Are there incentives for mentors to engage in individualized activities to promote their personal and professional development?

C. Are all elements of the plan for providing support and rewards for mentors compatible with:

  1. Ohio's entry year standard?

  2. The purpose of the entry year program?

  3. The rationale of the entry year program?

  4. The goals and objectives of the entry year program?

D. Are human resources identified to coordinate support and rewards for mentors?

E. Are material resources necessary to provide support and rewards for mentors identified?

IX. Mentor Assignment

A. Are there criteria for assigning mentors?

  1. Are the criteria compatible with the knowledge base on matching mentors with entry year administrators?

  2. Do the criteria reflect practical considerations of program size, types, and number of potential mentors and projected number and assignments of entry year administrators?

B. Is there a description of procedures for assigning mentors to entry year administrative personnel?

  1. Are the procedures compatible with the knowledge base on matching mentors with entry year administrators?

  2. Do the procedures address concerns of those directly affected by mentor assignment (i.e., entry year administrators, mentors, district administrators, and supervisors)?

  3. Is the issue for reassignment of mentors during the school year addressed? If reassignment is possible, are procedures described for requesting, deciding the appropriateness of, and making new assignments?

C. Are criteria and procedures for assigning mentors to entry year administrators compatible with:

  1. Ohio's entry year standard?

  2. The purpose of the entry year program?

  3. The rationale of the entry year program?

  4. The goals and objectives of the entry year program?

X. Professional Development Activities for Entry Year Administrators

A. Is there a tentative activity schedule designed to provide initial orientation on:

1. The pupils and community to be served?

2. School policies, procedures, and routines?

3. Courses of study, competency-based education programs, and responsibilities for lesson plans?

4. The layout and facilities of the assigned school building or buildings?

5. The nature of the entry year program which will be provided?

6. Additional information that entry year persons may need to be adequately prepared for their specific assignments?

B. Are ongoing professional development activities planned?

1. Are activities planned to meet both entry year administrators' professional and affective needs?

2. Is there a balance of group activities, one-to-one mentor-protege activities, and self-directed activities?

3. Is there a tentative schedule of activities for the school year?

4. Is there a list of activities which need not take place on specific dates but are to take place periodically throughout the school year?

5. Does the plan contain sufficient flexibility to allow for:

a. Changes in activities due to changes in program goals and objectives?

b. Individual objectives and activities to be set by mentors and entry year administrators?

C. Are planned activities appropriately related to:

1. Ohio's entry year standard?

2. The purpose of the entry year program?

3. The rationale of the entry year program?

4. The goals and objectives of the entry year program?

5. The knowledge base on effective professional development activities for entry year administrators?

D. Are human resources provided to coordinate and implement each planned professional development activity?

E. Are material resources needed for each planned professional development activity identified?

XI. Specific Needs Assessments and Program Modification

A. Mentors

1. Are provisions described for administering and analyzing an initial formal needs assessment for mentors 30 to 60 days after the initiation of the entry year program?

    a. Is the needs assessment designed to measure both professional and affective needs of mentors?

    b. Is a wide variety of data collection procedures (such as surveys, interview, groups discussions, etc.) called for?

2. Are provisions made for formal or informal ongoing mentor needs assessment throughout the entry year?

3. Are provisions made for modifying mentor training or mentor support and reward components of the plan as a result of mentor needs assessment?

B. Entry Year Administrators

1. Are there provisions for administering and analyzing a formal needs assessment to entry year administrators 30 to 60 days after the beginning of each school year?

    a. Is the needs assessment designed to measure both professional and affective needs of first year administrators?

    b. Is a wide variety of data collection procedures called for?

2. Are provisions made for ongoing formal or informal beginning administrator needs assessment throughout the entry year?

3. Is a process described for making modifications in the entry year program based on results of entry year administrator needs assessment?

C. Are human resources identified to coordinate and implement mentor and entry year administrator needs assessment and corresponding modifications in the entry year program?

D. Are material resources necessary to carry out mentor and entry year administrator needs assessment identified?

XII. Program Evaluation and Revision

A. Phases of Program Evaluation

1. Context evaluation

a. Is there a plan for identifying environmental factors which may affect the entry year program or its outcomes? (Examples of such environmental factors are community conditions, the financial status of the school district, staff attitudes, and crisis situations experienced by a school or the school district). Does the plan include methods for measuring the effects of these factors on the entry year program and its outcomes?

b. Are there provisions for determining if the program needs assessments correctly identified the needs of mentors and entry year administrators?

2. Input evaluation

a. Are there provisions for evaluating the written program plan? (This outline represents a set of guidelines for such an evaluation).

b. Are there provisions for evaluating the appropriateness and adequacy of human and material resources assigned to the entry year program?

3. Process evaluation

a. Are there provisions for determining if the entry year program is implemented according to the program plan?

b. If any components of the entry year program are not implemented according to the plan, are there provisions for identifying reasons for the lack of implementation? Are there provisions for identifying effects of the lack of implementation?

4. Outcomes evaluation

a. Is there a plan to measure whether or not program objectives have been met?

b. Is there a plan to measure (positive and negative) unintended program outcomes?

B. Are there provisions for analyzing data from each phase of the program evaluation and synthesizing the results of that analysis in a comprehensive evaluation report?

C. Are there procedures for revising the entry year program in response to the program evaluation?

D. Are human resources to coordinate and implement program evaluation and revision identified?

E. Are material resources necessary for program evaluation identified?

XIII. Dissemination

A. Are there provisions for disseminating information about the entry year program to appropriate parties?

B. Are human resources identified to coordinate and implement dissemination of information?

C. Are material resources necessary to disseminate information identified?

XIV. Program Budget

A. Has a tentative program budget been created?

B. Are spending categories and amounts consistent with resource needs identified in the written plan?

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has been designed to assist the facilitators in local school districts to develop an entry year program plan for their newly-hired administrators. A model, consisting of nine steps to be followed in designing and evaluating a program for all entry year educational personnel was presented first, followed by an outline representing fourteen components of a written entry year support plan. Local planners can construct effective programs as they respond to the questions posed in the outline presented.

CHAPTER 5

CONSIDERING SPECIAL ISSUES

To this point, information related to the strategies that may be utilized in a school system to develop a plan for an entry year program has been provided. Once again, attention has been directed primarily to the design of plans for assisting with the induction of school administrators.

In this chapter, attention is turned to a consideration of issues very directly related to the design and implementation of an entry year program for administrative personnel. Included is a variety of background information that a district planning team needs to consider as it develops its own entry year program. The first issue considered is a determination of who should be included as an "entry year administrator." Next, various definitions of mentoring are examined in describing the critical role of mentors to beginning administrators. The final issue involves how to secure necessary commitments by local education agencies as a way to make certain that entry year programs for novice administrators may be positive experiences. A key concern is that these programs fit as parts of a comprehensive professional development plans for all administrators in a school district.

WHO IS THE ENTRY YEAR ADMINISTRATOR?

An entry year administrator is a person who is employed for the first time under an educational personnel certificate, according to the Ohio Entry Year Standard. In this context, it is fairly easy to identify individuals who have been classroom teachers and are not taking a first plunge into educational administration as principals or assistant principals as needing some type of specialized induction to help them over some initial career hurdles. In fact, the minimal expectation of the Ohio Department of Education's Entry Year Standard is that districts must provide programs for such inexperienced individuals. However, as is true of all other minimum standards specified by the state department, local school districts may, and are encouraged to, exceed the basic expectations of a policy to provide more comprehensive programs. In this light, it is suggested that the answer to the question posed at the outset of this section may require some additional review by local planners.

For example, when a school district employs individuals with administrative experience from another school system, it may be highly desirable to require those persons to participate in some form of local entry year program. In all probability, such a program would not include some materials and activities that are designed to help newcomers appreciate the basic expectations that are tied to an administrator's role. It is likely that newly hired principals with years of prior experience have already developed some personal understandings and philosophical stances regarding the nature of their jobs. On the other hand, even the most experienced individuals have a need to learn about the idiosyncracies of a new school system. While being a principal is essentially the same job description in virtually any school in the country, the environments in which one carries out that description have as many different faces as there are school systems. Being a principal in a semi-rural suburban school of 5,000 students is not the same experience as serving as a principal of an inner city school in a district of 50,000 students. In the same vein, success as an urban principal does not even guarantee survival in a rural community.

The basic technical, conceptual, and human relations skills required of an effective administrator might be the same from place to place. But when the setting is different, the translation of those same skills also changes. Furthermore, even administrators moving from a district that is apparently similar to their new one (i.e., from small town to small town, or suburb to suburb) need some specialized training and support to learn about local practices, procedures, and expectations. In short, an experienced administrator moving from one setting to another may not need as much support provided in terms of initial socialization or induction. There is, however, a critical need for considerable orientation. This need is made even more accute in cases where administrators transfer into Ohio from other states.

While the assumption is often made that, at least in elementary schools, a person's "entry year" into administration is through the principalship, the state standards require school systems to develop more comprehensive programs than those which are focused on this role.

In the development of an entry year program, the definition of who is required to participate in such an activity needs to be clearly understood. The Ohio Department of Education has responded to this by noting that, as is true of professional education certificates in general, there are two broad classifications: teaching personnel and non-teaching personnel. Those included in the former group are obvious, and those included as non-teaching personnel include school nurses, speech pathologists, audiologists, school psychologists, counselors, supervisors, and administrators. The rules related to required entry year programs call for induction programs to be provided to individuals at only one time during their career in either classification group. In other words, an individual who becomes a classroom teacher for the first time must be provided with an entry year program. If that same person takes a non-teaching position (as a counselor, social worker, or supervisor), they must be provided with a second support program during the first year of service in that role. However, if a person changes a non-teaching position and, for example, moves from the role of a counselor to an administrative position, no further entry year support is required. The state standard requires only that two entry year programs be provided during an educator's career, regardless of the number of positions that might be held over time. This is the most basic requirement of the standard. Individual school systems may, of course, exceed the minimum standard and call for mandated entry year experiences whenever a person moves from one job to another.

Another group of "entry year" employees for whom a district may wish to provide a program (although not formally required to do so by statute) are individuals who might already have experience, but who have had a gap in terms of continuing experience. For example, a district may appoint a person to a principalship who had been in that role a number of years ago, left the field to pursue other career or personal objectives, and now has decided to re-enter professional education by applying for a new principalship. Such a career path in education administration is not often found, but a district may find itself in a situation where it would like to employ a person with this type of background and experience. If it does, an entry year program might be made available.

One thing that deserves special mention here is that districts have many options to follow in terms of meeting the requirements of the state standard. As noted here, the basic expectation is that people who are hired by a system for a job that is new to them will be provided with opportunities to increase the likelihood that they will succeed. The "letter of the law" calls for those who are working for the first time under any Educational Personnel certificate to receive special support. But, as was pointed out throughout this chapter, each district in Ohio is able to go well beyond the minimal expectations of the standard to develop localized programs that make sense in a particular setting. There are some districts where it is quite unlikely that anyone without prior administrative experience will ever be offered a job. Nevertheless, administrator entry year programs in such systems might be quite important as a way to help people adjust to the policies, procedures, norms, and culture of a new environment.

As indicated in the previous discussion of research on beginning school administrators, these sorts of local concerns are often the most critical issues to be faced by superintendents and principals. Not appreciating the unique characteristics of a new school system causes many unsuccessful experiences. Entry year programs developed by local school systems might be a way to considerably reduce the number of these failures.

WHAT IS A MENTOR?

As noted in the description of specific elements of the Ohio Entry Year Standard in Chapter 1, one of the central features is the requirement that mentors must be made available by employing school systems to serve as resource persons who may be consulted by newly-hired educational personnel. This same basic requirement is true of programs for all certificated personnel -- teachers, counselors, psychologists, social workers, supervisors, and administrators.

Implied in the standard is the view that the mentor is a person who would be able to provide advice and guidance to a person brought into a professional position for the first time in a school system. However, the concept of organizational mentoring -- both as an unplanned occurrence as well as a structured program -- has a considerably longer and more detailed history that might be consulted as a school district begins to move forward with their effort to develop a local effort toward induction.

Throughout this Resource Guide, mentoring is understood to be the process of bringing together experienced, competent administrators with beginning colleagues as a way to help them with the transition to the world of school administration. Mentors cannot be expected to guarantee that persons with whom they work (proteges) will succeed. However, proteges should be encouraged to consider their mentors as resourceful individuals possessing knowledge and expertise that can be shared when consulted. Many other definitions and issues related to mentoring beginning school administrators will be reviewed in Chapters 6 and 7 of this Resource Guide.

NECESSARY LOCAL COMMITMENTS

The best entry year programs in the world, along with the most sophisticated possible approaches to mentoring, will be ineffective in the long run if there is a lack of systemic support for these programs. In this section, two basic commitments needed by school systems to develop and maintain successful entry year programs are considered.

Commitment to Professional Development

As stated throughout this Resource Guide, the entry year program will likely only be successful if it is viewed as a component of a complete professional development program for a school district. If it is viewed simply as an "add-on" activity required by the Ohio Department of Education, it will not have the same long-term effect on the ways in which administrators in a school system are supported in their work. Chapter 3 presented information relating to how induction or entry year programs must be viewed as but one part of a three stage sequence of professional development. The three stages were preservice preparation, induction, and ongoing inservice education. Without this type of comprehensive view, a district is likely to develop only minimally satisfying approaches to the entry year standard.

Incentives

The process of mentoring beginning administrators is hard work. Further, it is the type of hard work that will likely be assigned to some of the more successful -- and busy -- administrators in a school district. The old saying about "the willing horses pulling the heaviest loads" is appropriate in this regard. What, then, might a district do in order to keep from burning out its "horsepower?"

Several incentives might be possible as strategies. Chapter 3 included a recommendation of the Oregon School Study Council that beginning administrators be saved from a lot of district committee assignments and other responsibilities during their first years on the job. The same might be said about the experienced administrators who are assigned mentoring duties. A person cannot function effectively as a mentor if too many peripheral duties are also assigned. One important incentive for mentors might be the release from some other district responsibilities. A principal who serves as an entry year mentor, for example, should probably not be expected to serve on the district's negotiating team during the same year.

Mentors mights, depending on the financial abilities of a school system, be provided with some additional financial stipend as a compensation for their mentoring work. With the limited funding available for school systems across the state of Ohio, it is realized that such a form of incentive is not likely to be readily available for most school districts. The point made here is that service as a mentor deserves a reward of some type, and if money is available, it would be a useful incentive.

Some school districts might work out arrangements with local universities so that administrators who serve as mentors might receive some type of credit from the institution of higher education in recognition of their work. Also, a school system designated as a CEU (Continuing Education Unit) provider may grant credit to its own administrators who work in mentoring relationships. Either of these alternatives is appealing for administrators who are seeking renewal of administrative certificates.

Finally, school systems should not overlook the most obvious type of reward: the recognition and acknowledgement to professional administrators who give their time and energy to work with beginning colleagues. Formal recognition by the school board, a dinner, plaques, etc., are all ways of saying "thank you" to educators who go beyond the confines of their normal job descriptions. And these forms of incentive can be very powerful indeed.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, a number of specific issues related to the development of local entry year support programs were reviewed. A major part of such programs is the establishment of mentoring arrangements involving beginning administrators and experienced colleagues. Much attention was focused on this aspect of the entry year concept.

Fundamental issues involved with mentoring programs were considered. In the last section of this chapter two additional important features of effective entry year and mentoring programs for administrative personnel were examined. These two things concerned the extremely important issue of establishing local district commitment to entry year programs, and also the need to identify appropriate incentives for mentors and others who work in entry year efforts. Induction programs will rarely succeed if they are not treated officially as worthwhile activities, and if they are not designed to fit as parts of comprehensive professional development programs at the local level.

CHAPTER 6

WHAT IS A MENTOR?

Throughout the earlier chapters of this Resource Guide, the Entry Year program for beginning school administrators involves the development of many different activities. For example, districts should establish planning teams, critical skills for administrators need to be identified, and local decisions must be made concerning the breadth of the Entry Year program offered within each school district. In this chapter, a central ingredient in the Entry Year standard -- the identification of experienced administrators to serve as mentors -- is described in detail. First, general background information related to the concept of mentoring is provided. Next, the characteristics of effective mentors are suggested, followed by a review of the major responsibilities of mentors for school administrators. Finally, the types of mentors are described as they relate to Entry Year programs for school administrators.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON MENTORING

The image of the mentor being a person who is a wise and patient counselor serving to shape and guide the lives of younger colleagues lives on through many recent popular definitions of mentoring and mentors. Ashburn, Mann, and Purdue (1987) defined mentoring as "the establishment of a personal relationship for the purpose of professional induction and guidance." Lester (1981) noted that this activity is an important part of adult learning because of its holistic and individualized approach to learning in an experiential fashion, defined by Bova and Phillips (1984) as "learning resulting from or associated with experience."

Additional definitions are found for "mentor." Sheehy (1976) described this person as "one who takes an active interest in the career development of another person ... a non-parental role model who actively provides guidance, support, and opportunities for the protege ... " The Woodlands Group (1980) called mentors "guides who support a person's dreams and help put [the dreams] into effect in the world ... " Levinson (1978) noted that a mentor, as a critical actor in the developmental process, is "one defined not in terms of the formal role, but in terms of the character of the relationship and the function it serves ... a mixture of parent and peer." A mentor may act as host and guide welcoming the initiate into a new occupational and social world and acquainting the protege with its values, customs, resources, and cast of characters. Another definition by Del Wasden and his associates at Brigham Young University (1988) seems to be particularly relevant when the concept of mentorship is discussed in terms of programs for practicing school administrators:

> The mentor is a master at providing opportunities for the growth of others, by identifying situations and events which contribute knowledge and experience to the life of the [administrator]. Opportunities are not happenstance; they must be thoughtfully designed and organized into logical sequence. Sometimes hazards are attached to opportunity. The mentor takes great pains to help the [administrator] recognize and negotiate dangerous situations. In doing all this, the mentor has an opportunity for growth through service, which is the highest form of leadership.

An element that appears to be common to any view of mentoring is that this activity must be seen as part of a developmental relationship tied to an appreciation of life and career stages. Kathy Kram (1985) examined mentoring as it is carried out in private industry and observed that many different types of relationships are likely to be appropriate at varying times in a person's career. She suggested that people have vastly different mentoring needs associated with each stage. As she observed, "Research on adult development (Levinson, et al., 1978; Gould, 1978) and career development (Hall, 1976; Schein, 1976) has established that, at each stage of life and career, individuals face a predictable set of needs and concerns which are characteristics of their particular age and career history." Because of this emphasis on differentiated support according to career experience, we believe that this is a strong statement of support for the view expressed in the Ohio Entry Year standard which calls for special mentoring support to be provided during the earliest stages of professional careers.

Mentoring has some drawbacks as well. For example, Weber (1980) noted that mentoring can be detrimental to growth if proteges develop too great a reliance on their mentors who might be viewed as people who are "supposed" to provide all possible answers to all possible questions. In cases such as this, mentorship no longer exists. Rather, a dependency relationship is formed, and growth by the protege is virtually impossible. A constant question that must be present in the mind of the protege must be, "What will become of me when my mentor is no longer available?" If that question cannot be answered with a response that suggests a positive future direction for the protege, then something less than true mentorship would have been present in the first place.

Considerable discussion must take place in school systems that are planning to develop mentoring programs in the future. It is too easy to think solely in terms of mentors serving as those who will "mold" the careers of their proteges according to some type of preconceived model of what all administrators must always look like. Instead, true mentorship involves the assisting of an individual to grow in a highly personalized way. Good mentors are able to work with individuals with varying needs and abilities, with the good of helping those individuals become "the best that they can be."

TYPES OF MENTORS

The literature on mentoring makes two things very clear about the types of mentorship that might exist in organizations. First, not all supportive relationships can be accurately defined as "mentoring." Second, variations exist within true mentorships.

With regard to the first issue, numerous authors have pointed to the fact that many different titles may be attached to those who provide guidance and support to others who work in organizations. As noted earlier, mentoring is an accepted and vital part of the developmental processes in many professional fields. As Schein (1978) noted, the concept has long been utilized in business organizations to connote such diverse images as "teacher, coach, trainer, positive role model, developer of talent, openner of doors, protectors, sponsor, or successful leader." In fact, the current literature suggests that mentoring needs to be understood as a combination of most, if not all, of these individual role descriptors (Galvez-Hjornevik, 1986). Thus, the practice of mentoring is a crucial one to be included as a component of any experiential professional preparation program. Guides, counselors, or coaches are needed to help neophytes negotiate their way through a field and "make sense" out of what is happening around them in an organization, and also what is going on in their personal lives. As a result, there is considerable potential to be found in applying the concept of mentoring to the professional development of school administrators.

Mentors are different from the types of role models that may have worked with aspiring administrators during conventional field-based learning activities and preservice practice. Kathy Kram (1985), for example, noted that the other terms which might be used to describe developmental relationships in work settings include "sponsorship," "coaching," "role modeling," "counseling," and even "friendship." Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe (1978) suggested that there is a type of continuum of advisory relationships that facilitate access to positions of advisory relationships that facilitate access to positions of leadership in organizations. On one hand is a "peer pal" relationship, and on the other end of the scale is a true mentoring relationship:

> Peer pal: Someone at the same level with whom a person shares information, strategies, and mutual support for mutual benefit.
>
> Guide: A person who can explain the system but is not usually in a position to champion a protege.
>
> Sponsor: An individual who is less powerful that a patron in promoting and shaping the career of a protege.
>
> Patron: An influential person who uses his or her power to help another advance in his or her career.
>
> Mentor: An intensive paternalistic relationship in which an individual assumes the role of both teacher and advocate.

These types of developmental relationships tend to focus on the business-oriented concept of finding relationships that are designed to foster only one variation of true mentoring, namely relationships that are directed primarily toward career advancement. Similar perspectives are offered in the literature by many others, including Daton, Thompson, and Price (1977), Anderson and Deranner (1980), Van Vorst (1980), and Clutterbuck (1986). This view of the value of mentoring finds the roots in private industry where younger members of organizations are "shown the ropes" and led toward greater career success through the intervention of others who provide the direction necessary to achieve personal goals and ambitions. Keele, Buckner, and Bushnell (1987) noted that formal, organizationally-sponsored mentor programs have recently been initiated in settings such as the Internal Revenue Service and many large commercial banks and insurance companies. In these and other situations where mentoring has been viewed as an effective strategy to promote personal and professional development, the bringing of new leaders "on board" assumes many of the following characteristics noted by Henry (1987):

1. Mentoring arrangements are a small but important part of normal management training for selected employees.
2. What is typically referred to as "mentoring" often tends to be in fact an activity of "coaching," or showing people "how to do it around here."
3. Organizational cultures support the development of future managers, and thus there are typically certain formal or informal rewards associated with mentoring as well as being mentored.

Career advancement, as a goal of mentoring relationships, is certainly commendable. In the field of professional education, however, there is not the same sense of urgency attached to career advancement that might be found in private companies where people must proceed through a number of positions on their way "to the top." School systems, by contrast, do not typically permit many intermediate positions as a person moves from one role to another. Further, moving into administrative positions in schools is no longer viewed as an advancement from teaching. No longer is movement from the classroom to the administrative office viewed as a normal career path. Nor is movement from the principalship to the central office necessarily viewed as a normal pattern. As a result, "career advancement" is a very different type of activity in schools, as compared to private corporations.

Mentoring programs for school administrators need to focus on an entirely different set of objectives, namely those that are associated with the personal and psychological growth of individuals. Melanie Shockett and her associates at Arizona State University (1983) noted that most mentoring relationships in education are likely to be ones that focus almost exclusively on promoting personality and professional development, rather than career development. As a result, mentors in the field of education must be able to work with proteges during a period of personal transition from one role to another. Emphasis in this respect needs to be placed on the mentoring skills of encouraging (demonstrating confidence in a protege's abilities), counseling (discussing a protege's fears, anxieties and uncertainties), and assisting the protege to perceive himself or herself as a colleague, peer, or friend whose assistance and ideas are valued.

Whatever the variation on mentoring that might be selected as appropriate in a particular school setting, what is most important, however, resides in the choice of the correct individuals to serve in that role. Whether the primary focus is on career advancement or personal development, and whether individuals are able to serve as "true" mentors or "peer pals," it is clear that not all practicing school administrators might serve as good mentors. In the next section, information is provided concerning some of the characteristics often associated with effective mentors.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE MENTORS

A natural concern that emerges very quickly as part of discussions related to the development of mentoring programs concerns the selection of individuals who might serve as mentors. Several individuals have made efforts to address this issue in recent years.

Patricia Haensly and Elaine Edlind (1986) suggested the following characteristics of "ideal" mentors:

1. Outstanding knowledge, skills, and expertise in a particular domain;
2. Enthusiasm that is sincere, convincing, and most importantly, constantly conveyed to their proteges;
3. The ability to communicate to others a clear picture of their personal attitudes, values, and ethical standards;
4. The ability to communicate sensitively the type of feedback that is needed regarding their protege's development and progress toward desirable standards and competence and professional behavior;
5. Sensitive listening ability to their protege's ideas, doubts, concerns, and enthusiastic outpourings;

6. A caring attitude and a belief in their protege's potential;
7. Flexibility and a sense of humor;
8. A restrained sense of guidance so that their protege may develop as independently as possible.

John Daresh and Marsha Playko (1989) reflected on their experiences associated with the Danforth Foundation Program for the Preparation of Principals at The Ohio State University and suggested the following features that appear to be associated with individuals' ability to serve as effective mentors for aspiring school administrators:

1. Mentors should have experience as practicing school administrators, and they should be generally regarded by their peers and others as being effective.
2. Mentors must demonstrate generally accepted positive leadership qualities, such as:
    a. intelligence;
    b. good oral and written communication skills;
    c. past, present, and future understanding with simultaneous orientation;
    d. acceptance of multiple alternative solutions to complex problems;
    e. clarity of vision and the ability to share that vision with others in the organization;
    f. well-developed interpersonal skills and sensitivities.
3. Mentors need to be able to ask the right questions of beginning administrators, and not just provide the "right" answers all the time.
4. Mentors must accept "another way of doing things," and avoid the tendency to tell beginners that the way to do something is "the way I used to do it."
5. Mentors should express the desire to see people go beyond their present levels of performance, even if it might mean that they are able to do some things better than the mentors might be able to do themselves.
6. Mentors need to model the principles of continuous learning and reflection.
7. Mentors must exhibit the awareness of the political and social realities of life in at least one school system; they must know the "real way" that things get done.

Some characteristics which might serve as "danger signals" for people who would be very poor mentors:

1. Ineffective mentors become so heavily involved with the internal politics of a particular school district that their primary, or even sole, purpose is to survive the system and increase their personal status. Newcomers must understand the political realities of a system, not learning how to "play the game" of jockeying about for position.

2. It is not really a wise move to arrange a mentoring relationship between a novice and a person who is also new to his or her position. This is true even if the mentor has many years of experience at another position in the same system. For example, a former experienced principal in his or her first year in a central office position frequently has so many things to learn that he or she may need a mentor, and would have little time to spend with a beginning principal.

3. Mentors should not be assigned because a school system believes that such an assignment will serve to "fix" a marginally effective administrator. There is some suggestion in the research that serving as a mentor is satisfying to administrators on a personal basis. There is no reason to believe that actual administrative performance is enhanced due to service as a mentor. Further, it simply does not make much sense to match a beginning administrator with someone who does not demonstrate the very best behaviors associated with being an effective educational administrator.

4. Ineffective mentors are administrators who have a long history of high staff turnover rates in their buildings or school districts.

5. Ineffective mentors demonstrate "know it all" behaviors and attitudes when discussing their approaches to solving administrative problems. Self-confidence is a desirable characteristic for a mentor. Being closed-minded about alternative solutions to complex problems, however, is probably a mark of someone's insecurity and lack of confidence. Such features would not qualify a person to be a particularly effective mentor.

POTENTIAL PROBLEMS IN MENTORING

The use of mentoring relationships is widely-supported as a valuable approach to professional development for people in many different professional fields, however, there are some definite potential problems tied to the use of this practice as well:

1. Mentors may become too protective and controlling.

2. Mentors may have personal agendas to fulfill.
3. Mentors may not acknowledge the limitations of their proteges.
4. Beginning principals may get only a limited perspective from a mentor.
5. Beginners may become too dependent on their mentors.
6. Beginners may idealize and idolize their mentors.
7. Beginners may become "carbon copies" of their mentors.
8. Formal mentoring arrangements may be too structured.
9. Mentors may compare all beginning principals to an ideal vision or standard of performance which may never be realized.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF MENTORS

Despite any apparent limitations on the use of mentorship as a central part of Entry Year programs for school administrators, there are tremendous values to be achieved through these types of programs. Most of these benefits are achieved when mentors become engaged in carrying out a variety of special functions and responsibilities.

Advising: In this way, the mentor responds to a protege's need to gain additional information needed to carry out a job effectively.

Communicating: Here, the mentor works consistently to ensure that open lines of communication are always available between himself or herself and the protege.

Counseling: The mentor provides needed emotional support to the protege.

Guiding: In this way, the mentor works to orient and acquaint the new adminstrator to the informal and formal norms of a particular school system.

Modeling: The mentor serves as a true role model to the protege by consistently demonstrating professional and competent performance on the job.

Protecting: When needed, the mentor serves as a buffer between the protege and those in the school system who might wish to detract from the beginner's performance.

Skill Developing: The mentor assists the protege in learning skills needed to carry out a job effectively.

In addition to these listed responsibilities, the mentor must also be willing to provide the time that may be needed by a beginning principal to simply talk about job-related concerns. Perhaps the most important thing that anyone can do as a mentor is to be available when needed by the protege, not to "fix" problems, but rather, to indicate that someone cares about what the beginner is doing.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, information was provided about many aspects of mentoring, a central feature of mandated Entry Year programs.

Among the specific issues considered were some of the basic concepts and definitions of mentoring, followed by a review of some of the characteristics often viewed as important for mentors to demonstrate. Included in that discussion was a review of some of the features associated with ineffective performance as mentors. Next, some of the problems often associated with mentoring were enumerated. The chapter concluded with a presentation of some of the most important responsibilities of mentors who work with beginning school administrators.

CHAPTER 7

WHAT IS A PROTEGE?

In the last chapter, information concerning the nature of mentoring was provided. The identification and selection of the right people to serve as mentors is a critical first step in the establishment of an effective program.

This chapter includes information directed toward the second important component of an effective mentoring relationship, namely the person being mentored or, in more common terms, the protege. The following sections will contain information related to the types of things that need to be done by proteges in order to ensure that mentorship arrangements will be successful. Second, some insights are given regarding the ways in which mentors and proteges might be matched. Finally, the chapter concludes with a review of some of the benefits that might be achieved by proteges when they participate in effective and well-designed mentoring programs.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PROTEGES

As noted earlier, the people who participate in mentoring programs bear a major portion of the responsibility for making such programs successful. Mentors must possess certain characteristics in order to be considered effective. Essential characteristics for mentors were discussed in some detail in Chapter 6. Proteges also have certain responsibilities as partners in these relationships as well. Haensly and Edlind (1986) identified some of the most important characteristics and duties of those who are being mentored in formal programs. They noted that "ideal" proteges should possess:

1. Enthusiasm about the domain in which they are working, and also about their personal involvement in the study of that domain.
2. The ability to demonstrate initiative along with a conscientious effort to develop their own self-potential.

3. A commitment to carry-through on suggested plans and activities, and a desire to go beyond any established minimal levels of performance.
4. An open-minded, objective, and non-defensive attitude.
5. A degree of insightfulness about self and others, often tempered by a good sense of humor.

In addition to these types of commitments and personal characteristics, proteges have some additional duties to perform if mentoring arrangements are to achieve the goals that are established. There are several responsibilities that proteges need to be aware of on a day-to-day basis. For example, they can learn from the many people who work in their school systems, in addition to their assigned mentors. In this way, there is less likelihood that mentoring arrangements would necessarily become dependency relationships. Second, proteges need to come forward to their mentors to seek advice regarding specific issues and concerns. Mentors cannot be expected to be "mind readers" who will know all the concerns that are faced by their less-experienced colleagues. Proteges have a responsibility to articulate their concerns in an open and honest fashion. A third duty of proteges is that they need to remain open to the suggestions that are offered to them by their mentors. If people act as if they know all the answers before asking any questions, mentors will likely lose much of their enthusiasm to work with proteges.

Mentorship is an interactive and dynamic process that requires both parties -- mentor and protege -- to invest time and effort to make sure that a "mutually-enhancing" relationship can be developed. If it cannot, the ideal of mentoring might be reduced simply to a mandated part of a required program that will not achieve its full potential to assist new administrators in the field.

MENTOR-PROTEGE MATCHING

Matching mentors with proteges is by no means an easy task. It would be highly desirable to match every beginning school administrator with a mentor who possesses a sincere and deep desire to spend time working productively with a novice colleague. The fact is, however, that such commitment may not always be available, particularly in very small school systems where few administrators are available to serve as mentors to Entry Year administrators.

The ideal matching of mentors and proteges should be based on an analysis of professional goals, interpersonal styles, and learning needs of both parties. It is nearly impossible in the "real world" to engage in such perfect matching practices. Most mentoring relationships associated with the implementation of Entry Year programs will likely be formed as "marriages of convenience," and not as ideal, naturally-developing relationships so often presented in the literature related to mentoring practices in organizations. However, if individual awareness of the values to be found in mentorship, a regard for mutual respect and trust, and a sense of openness and positive interaction are all present, then the mentor-protege relationship has the potential to be as strong as possible.

No magic recipes exist to guide the matching of mentors to proteges. However, some of the issues that might be considered when a school district begins to develop a local program include the following:

1. Cross-gender mentoring (Will it be possible for men to work with female colleagues? Women to work with men?)
2. Mentoring across organizational levels (Can a superintendent serve as a mentor to a beginning principal?)
3. Differences in ages (Can younger, but more experienced, administrators serve as effective mentors to older colleagues who are just beginning their administrative careers?)
4. Mentoring across school systems (Is it necessary for the mentor and protege to be employed by the same school system? Can productive mentoring relationships be developed across school district boundaries?)

Answers to these and other questions related to strategies utilized to match mentors with proteges must be addressed at the local level. Little research has been conducted to guide program developers with making these choices. Further, local conditions such as the personalities of mentor administrators and beginners, traditions of cooperation, and other aspects of life in particular school systems have a major impact on the way in which a program might be developed.

BENEFITS TO PROTEGES

Despite all of the difficulties that might be part of the design of a mentoring program, it is necessary to remember that there are many benefits to be achieved by the beginning administrator as a protege. These benefits outweigh any disadvantages related to program design.

Among the benefits often cited by those who have served as proteges in mentoring programs for administrator professional development are the following:

1. Working with a mentor is a way to build confidence and competence. Proteges enjoy working with people who sense that they possess skills needed to meet new professional challenges. They are able to receive the type of "tapping," encouragement, and reinforcement from their mentors that enable them to look to their future responsibilities with a good deal more confidence.

2. The mentoring experience provides people with the opportunity to blend the theory of administration learned through university courses with real-life applications out in the field. People can see ideas being translated into action on a daily basis in real school settings by real school practitioners.

3. Communication skills are frequently improved. Working on a regular basis with mentors gives people the ability to fine-tune their ability and to express important ideas to their colleagues.

4. Proteges report that they are able to learn many important "tricks of the trade." They are often able to pick up a number of proven techniques and strategies that mentors have used successfully in different settings. As a consequence, they are able to build personalized "bags of tricks" to use on the job at different times in the future.

5. Perhaps most importantly, proteges express a feeling that they are now "connected" with at least one other person who understands the nature of the world in which they must work. There is little doubt that one

of the most frustrating parts of the school administrator's life is that he or she must often go about the business of leading while in isolation. A mentoring relationship reduces this type of situation greatly.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the responsibilities of proteges were considered as they are related to the development and maintenance of successful mentoring programs. It was noted that effective mentorship must be understood as a dynamic and interactive process where both the mentor and protege are expected to contribute time and skill if the relationship is to "work."

Next, issues associated with effective matching of mentors and proteges were reviewed. No single model is available to dictate proper matching. Instead, local conditions must be assessed to determine the proper way to bring experienced and beginning administrators together on a continuing and productive basis.

The chapter concluded with a brief consideration of some of the major benefits that are likely to be derived by proteges as a result of their participation in a mentorship program. Such activities require a considerable amount of effort to develop, but there is consistent evidence that suggests that the work is worthwhile.

CHAPTER 8

TRAINING FOR MENTORS

The practice of mentoring serves as a very important part of planned efforts to support Entry Year programs for school administrators. School districts that are about to implement programs designed to assist beginning school administrators will likely find it necessary to develop specialized training activities to help those individuals who have been identified as mentors to carry out their responsibilities as effectively as possible.

In this chapter, issues associated with the development of mentor training programs that might be established throughout the state of Ohio on a regional, county, or individual school district basis are noted. First, a number of fundamental assumptions concerning the conditions which must exist before beginning any type of local training program are reviewed. In many ways, these assumptions represent the types of attitudes which need to be demonstrated by designers of training activities. Next, there is a presentation of some of the most relevant skills that must be addressed as districts work to prepare individuals to serve in their critical helping roles. Most of these skills might be classified as practices associated with the processes of mentoring. Finally, the chapter concludes with some suggestions concerning a knowledge base that needs to be addressed as part of the professional development for beginning school administrators.

FUNDAMENTAL ASSUMPTIONS

Four major conditions need to exist in a school or district if mentor training is to be effective. Any system undertaking the establishment of a mentoring program to assist beginning administrators will take steps to establish trust and openness among the administrators of the district, will invest sufficient resources to support a mentoring program, will develop and maintain open and honest communication patterns, and will show awareness and sensitivity to the unique learning needs of adults.

Trust Building

In order for mentorship to be successful, positive rapport and trust need to exist among the personnel involved in the program. If working relationships among administrators are marked by feelings of jealousy, disrespect, and fear, administrative mentoring programs have little chance to succeed.

The best situation for the establishment of an effective mentoring program would be one that is endorsed by all staff members working in harmony toward a common set of personal and professional goals. In such an arrangement, the prevailing view might be that all individuals sincerely believe that no one person can be any stronger than the weakest individual in the organization. As a result, there is a constant effort to make certain that everyone is as successful as possible. Unfortunately, such a norm does not always exist in school districts or individual schools.

Several strategies might be utilized to promote the development of greater rapport and more trusting relationships in schools.

Idol-Maestas, Nevin, and Paolucci-Whitcomb (1985) suggested the following behaviors that might be carried out as a way to promote a more positive and trusting work climate:

1. Each member of the organization needs to be conscious of his or her commitment to treat others with respect, even when disagreement is present.
2. All individuals must demonstrate a willingness to learn from others.
3. A commitment is needed so that everyone shares information that is relevant to the goals of the organization.
4. Individual differences among organizational members are recognized and responded to in a positive fashion.

5. All parties in the organization are invited to give feedback, and also receive feedback when provided by others.
6. Others are openly given credit for their ideas and other contributions to the organizations.
7. Confrontation skills are utilized correctly and in a positive fashion.

The key to these ideas having a discernible impact on the quality of life in a school is the extent to which people are willing to follow through with their dedication to the development of a more open climate. The seven steps noted above cannot merely be taped on a wall and forgotten. Someone or some group must accept the responsibility for making certain that a sincere effort is being made to carry out each practice.

Sufficient Resources

As noted throughout many earlier sections of this Resource Guide, school systems may comply with the requirement to provide support for beginning administrators at one of two levels. Superintendents might engage in token compliance by simply designating someone to serve as a mentor when new administrators are hired. On the other hand, district officials might make use of the Entry Year requirement as a way to promote a more effective approach to administrative professional development in general. In this second case, school districts will have invested a reasonable amount of support for programs. This support is not confined to the expenditure of money but, even more importantly, in terms of an investment of time and talent by people who will participate in Entry Year programs. Clearly, this includes those individuals who are to be directly involved as either mentors or proteges. In addition, even those not participating on a continuing basis -- people such as the district superintendent, other building administrators, school board members, and members of the Entry Year planning committee -- must continue to invest time and caring in the ongoing activities of mentors and beginning administrators. For example, a district may enact a policy which enables certain administrators to be relieved of other duties so that they might have more time to devote to the mentoring process. Entry Year programs should be given value and prestige if they are to achieve their full potential for being the basis of strong professional development for school administrators.

Open Communication

Another fundamental assumption is that school districts develop and maintain open communication patterns. In this way, people will be able to learn about how to perform their roles much more effectively. System wide patterns of open communication promotes similar patterns among the mentor and protege.

People can learn to talk to one another. Understanding and enhancing the communication process is also largely dependent upon the development of a set of specific skills. Richard Gorton (1986) has suggested some useful strategies for this important effort:

1. Paraphrasing. Restate the main ideas of others in order to clarify those ideas. ("In other words, what you're saying is ... ")
2. Perception Checking. Check to see that one's perception of what has been said is accurate. ("If I understand you correctly, you're saying ... ")
3. Relating Things to Personal Feelings. Communication can break down because receivers have a negative reaction to statements; what a person says offends, often unintentionally. A person must confront such negative feelings openly when they occur. ("When you say that, I feel like ... ")
4. Using Objective Descriptions. The use of highly subjective terms that imply personal value statements hurts open communication. It is necessary to describe behaviors with objective terms, when possible, so that people are less likely to say, "It's not what you're saying that I reject, but rather how you're saying it."
5. Feedback. People in organizations must learn to give and accept in return constructive and honest feedback to keep communication channels open between and among all parties.

Adult Learning

Most educators have considerable experience and expertise in dealing with children as learners. Mentors need to appreciate that their role calls for them to be sensitive to the concerns of adults as learners.

Adults have different learning needs from those of children. Malcolm Knowles (1970), a major contributor to the field of adult education, identified four critical characteristics of adults and their patterns of learning:

1. As a person matures, his or her self-concept moves from one of dependency to one of self-direction.
2. The mature person tends to accumulate a growing reservoir of experience that provides a resource for learning.
3. The adult's readiness to learn becomes increasingly oriented toward the developmental tasks of his or her assigned social roles.
4. The adult's time perspective changes from postponed application of knowledge to immediate application, and accordingly his or her orientation toward learning shifts from subject-centeredness to problem-centeredness.

Predictably, Knowles's work encouraged others to research and write in the field of adult education, and some researchers' work is useful in developing effective mentoring programs. Wood and Thompson (1980), for example, reviewed some salient aspects of adult learning:

1. Adults will learn the goals and objectives of a learning activity which are considered by the learner to be realistic, related, and important to a specific issue at hand.
2. Adults will learn, retain, and use what they perceive as relevant to their immediate personal and professional needs.
3. Adults need to see the results of their efforts and have frequent and accurate feedback about progress that is being made toward their goals.
4. Adult learning is highly ego involved. When a person is unsuccessful at a given learning task, it is likely that he or she will take it as an indication of personal incompetency and failure.
5. Adults always come to any learning experience with a wide range of previous experiences, knowledge, skills, and competencies.
6. Adults want to be the origins of their own learning, and they wish to be directly involved in the selection of learning objectives, content, and activities.
7. Adults will tend to resist any learning experience that they believe is either an open or implied attack on their personal or professional competence.

8. Adults reject prescriptions by others for their learnings.
9. Adult motivation comes from the learner and not from any external source. While this may generally be said of motivation of all individuals, it is true that, as a person matures, efforts to motivate from outside the individual will decrease in probable effectiveness.

Taken together, these characteristics of adult learning should provide administrative mentors with some important insights. First, the fact that adults want (and learn best from) experiences that address immediate problems suggests that mentors should direct activities toward answering the perennial question, "What should I do on Monday morning?" Mentors must be careful in this regard, however. Any tendency to try to provide proteges with too much advice can prove to be counter-productive.

Knowledge about adult learning also provides important clues to mentors about adult self-concept needs. As people become more mature, they become increasingly self-conscious in situations where they believe they might experience failure in front of others. Effective mentors practice confidentiality in their encounters with their proteges. They avoid public comparisons of their proteges with others.

Finally, mentors should recognize the potential richness of learning experiences their proteges have accumulated. Thus, these experiences could serve as building blocks for positive relationships between mentors and proteges.

SKILLS FOR EFFECTIVE MENTORING

When the assumptions above have been satisfied, it is possible to begin to develop a formal mentoring program in a school system. At least three specific skill areas have been identified as clearly related to the types of activities carried out by mentors, and as a result, training needs to be directed toward each of these. They include problem-solving skills, conferencing skills and observation skills.

Problem-Solving Skills

The essence of effective administration involves the resolution of problems faced by people in organizations. As a result, mentoring relationships for beginning school administrators must properly be directed toward the discovery of ways to refine problem-solving skills.

One model that might be consulted as the basis for developing practical skills associated with administrative problem-solving is suggested by Gordon (1987). It consists of the following seven steps which might be shared with a novice administrator faced with considering an issue associated with his or her job:

1. Seek information about the perceived problem. (If existence of a particular problem is verified, this information can be useful for the next steps in the process).
2. Define the problem. (Identify the desired situation and compare to the actual one. Moving from the actual to the desired situation is the goal of problem solving).
3. Propose alternative strategies to solve the problem. Generate as many potential strategies as possible; hold evaluations until later in the process.
4. Select strategies for implementation. (After weighing the advantages and disadvantages of each proposed strategy, choose the ones most likely to succeed).
5. Design an action plan. (Translate strategies into specific actions, agree on who is responsible for which actions, identify and secure resources, set a time line, and plan to assess actions taken).
6. Implement the action plan.
7. Assess the action plan. (Did the action plan produce the desired situation identified in the first step of this process? Continue, modify, or abandon the action plan depending on the outcome of the assessment).

The mentor might wish to review these seven basic steps prior to the first time in which a beginning administrator might encounter a problem that might call for this type of linear problem-solving model to be used. Another effective technique would involve the examination and review of these steps as a novice administrator is asked to "work through" a particular problem issue that was encountered on the job.

Conferencing Skills

Much of the interaction between mentors and beginning administrators will take place during one-to-one conferencing situations. Some information in the general literature relate to supervision, and in particular clinical and developmental supervision may be helpful to mentors who are seeking information for appropriate ways of working with beginning administrators. The majority of the work currently dealing with the use of conferencing practices between educators, deals with strategies utilized by administrative or supervisory personnel who are working with classroom teachers. Therefore, administrative mentors will need to adapt and modify information presented in the literature related to teacher conferences to address the needs, concerns, and sensitivities found in administrative mentor-protege conferences.

As noted at numerous places in this Resource Guide, the nature of school administration and professional development for educational administrators makes it quite inappropriate to attempt any direct transfer of teacher supervision or teacher mentoring practices into an Entry Year program for administrators. For one thing, conferences involving administrative mentors and their proteges will typically be apart from any immediate observation of performance, as is true of conferences utilized for classroom teachers. Further, it is absolutely essential in programs of administrative mentoring that the notion of peer relationships between mentors and proteges remain in tact. Conferencing between administrators or supervisors and teachers will always contain a strong element of subordinate-superordinate matching, regardless of whether the conferencing takes place as part of formative or summative evaluation. Conferences between administrators in a mentoring relationship must never be viewed in the same light.

Two sources of information on conferencing include collegial decision making, and Peer-Assisted Leadership (PAL). Conferencing built on the notion of collegial decision making might be an appropriate strategy because collegial decision making is based on the assumption that all partners in the process are considered equals, and that there is a degree of openness, trust, and honesty which prevails in the partnership. Generally, collegial decision making may be seen as a way of making incremental changes in the quality of things done on a continuing basis. The objectives of this approach are as follows: (Hitt, 1978)

1. To share experiences and ideas and to get support from one or more colleagues who may be enlisted to work toward the achievement of common goals.
2. To promote active and open communication skills.
3. To share problems, generate alternative solutions, evaluate alternatives, and select the most appropriate and feasible alternatives.
4. To provide assistance and encouragement to all parties in the collegial process.
5. To assist both mentors and proteges regarding particular administrative problems.
6. To provide a climate which promotes mutual support and stimulation of the professional growth of both the mentor and the protege.

Collegial decision making is by no means an easy process to implement in a school setting. It makes the assumption that all participants are able to engage in continuing, open dialogue to achieve solutions that are shared. As a result, this approach to conferencing precludes behavior by mentors which suggests that they will tell the protege what to do. No one partner is to act in a superior way to the other; the mentor does not talk to the protege to "fix" their problems. The emphasis on a mentor-protege relationship is placed on parity, mutuality and honest discourse.

The Peer-Assisted Leadership (PAL) model for administrator inservice that was developed by the Far West Regional Educational Laboratory in San Francisco (Barnett, 1986) provides a strategy that might also be consulted in developing conferencing skills by administrative mentors. PAL, in fact, is a comprehensive model that suggests that administrators will be provided with effective professional development by engaging in a systematic process of peer observation and conferencing. The primary purposes of PAL involve reducing the isolation so many principals experience by allowing them to gain greater insights into their own leadership behavior. These general purposes are supported through the specific goals of the program, which include helping principals to do the following:

1. Learn and apply new ways to think about instructional leadership.
2. Analyze their own and another principal's behavior.
3. Integrate the instructional leadership framework into their own settings.
4. Learn how other principals lead their schools.
5. Form a collegial support system in which new ideas and insights are shared and change is nurtured and supported.

Operationally, PAL works by pairing principals (perhaps as mentor and protege) to form a supportive team who agree to spend time in shadowing the other partner, and then engaging in extended face-to-face interviews and conferences. The primary emphasis in these sessions is to enable both partners to reflect on the nature of the activities recently observed during the shadowing phase. The following questions serve as the basis for the peer conference sessions:

1. What did you see when you watched the other principal?
2. What did you infer from his or her behavior?
3. What insights did you gain into your own behavior after observing the activities of another colleague?
4. How would you change your own behavior as a principal after what you have observed?
5. In what ways do you believe that you are a more effective instructional leader after what you have observed in the behavior of a colleague?

The real value of looking at PAL may be that, as a model for professional development, it places great emphasis on the notion of mutuality by participants.

This would seem to be a desirable goal in the Entry Year program setting where participation should be as valuable for the mentor as it is for the beginning administrator.

Observation Skills

Observation skills for those who would like to see what administrators do are considerably different from those used for teacher observations. After all, it is not possible to schedule a "drop-in" observation to see someone administer in the same way that an observer can slip into the back of a teacher's class for just a few minutes.

A recommended practice for those who wish to see what other administrators are doing is to engage in on-the-job shadowing. In this approach to observation, one administrator simply agrees to follow a colleague around during a typical work day. During that period of shadowing, the observer says nothing and avoids any direct involvement in the activities of his or her partner. The emphasis is on complete non-participant observation. The amount of time for the shadowing may vary according to time constraints of the partner administrators. However, it should be of sufficient duration that the observer can gain insights into what a typical period of time is like in the life of the other administrator. The most important feature of the shadowing experience comes after the period of observation has concluded and the two parties engage in the type of open, reflective conferencing described earlier.

The whole issue of observation of administrators is problematic in the mentor setting. As noted at earlier times in this Resource Guide, it is likely that mentors and proteges will be in different buildings or, at times, other school districts. As a result, opportunities for observation may be limited. Strategies need to be built in to effective Entry Year programs so that the protege will be able to get a valid response to the inevitable question, "How am I doing?"

A KNOWLEDGE BASE FOR PREPARING ADMINISTRATIVE MENTORS

In the earlier section of this chapter, information was presented concerning the required skills and assumptions associated with administrative mentors. In this section, another important issue is reviewed, namely the identification of a critical knowledge base that needs to be addressed by those who will assist in the forging of future administrative practice. In summary, mentors need to be aware of the characteristics of effective schools, recent research related to effective instructional leadership by principals, and the critical needs of beginning adminstrators.

Effective School Research

During the 1970's and 1980's many researchers attempted to answer a very simply yet important question: What is an effective school? The Ohio Department of Education (1981) has reviewed the findings of many of these studies and suggested that the following seven factors represent essential ingredients in effective elementary and secondary schools:

1. A Sense of Mission. Effective schools make a conscious decision to become effective schools and that is their mission. A collegial decision and commitment is made to assure minimum mastery of basic school skills for all pupils.

   Pupil acquisition of basic school skills takes precedence over all other school activities and, when necessary, school energy and resources are diverted from other activities to achieve that end.

2. Strong Building Leadership. Effective schools have principals who are, in fact, the instructional leaders of the staff. They are creative, bold, supportive and dedicated to the mission of the school. They are active and involved with all parts of their educational community.

3. High Expectations for All Students and Staff. Effective schools expect teachers to teach and pupils to learn. Standards are high but realistic. No student is allowed to attain less than minimum mastery of the basic skills of the assigned level.

   The teachers believe they have the ability to provide the required instructional program and that all students can master the basic skills they teach.

4. Frequent Monitoring of Student Progress. Effective schools have teachers and principals who are constantly aware of pupil progress in relationship to the instructional objectives. Frequent monitoring of pupil progress may be as traditional as classroom testing on the day's lesson or as advanced as criterion-referenced system-wide standardized testing measures.

5. A Positive Learning Climate. Effective schools have an atmosphere that is orderly without being rigid, quiet without being oppressive, and generally conductive to the instructional mission. The climate is warm and responsive, emphasizes cognitive development, is innovating, and provides a student support system.

6. Sufficient Opportunity for Learning. Effective schools emphasize more time on task. The more time spent in instruction, the greater the learning that takes place. Implications exist for improved use of time, individualized instruction and curriculum content.

7. Parent/Community Involvement. Effective schools have broad support. Parents influence their children in a number of ways: through their expectations for the children, through their own involvement, and through direct instructions.

Other answers to the question of what makes a school effective are found in the following chart (Figure 8.1) that was developed by Gerald Ubben and Larry Hughes (1987) in their work, The Principal: Creative Leadership for Effective Schools. The chart represents key characteristics of principals in effective schools in a comparison analysis of three studies by Weber (1981). Edmonds (1981), and Brookover-Lezotte (1983).

Weber	Edmonds	Brookover-Lezotte
1. Strong leadership	Strong leadership	Assertive instructional leadership
2. High expectations for students	High expectations for students	
3. Orderly atmosphere	Orderly, but not rigid atmosphere	Strong disciplinarian
4. Emphasis on reading	Emphasis on basic skills	Emphasis on achievement
5. Frequent evaluation	Emphasis on student progress	Evaluation of objectives

FIGURE 8.1

Key Characteristics of Principals in Effective Schools: A Comparison of Three Studies

Research on Instructional Leadership

The current literature stresses the fact that it is the principal who is they "key" ingredient to developing and maintaining effective schools. Further researchers have discovered that the key to this effectiveness is derived from the principal's ability to serve as an instructional leader. More and more has been written about the precise characteristics of principals who have served as instructional leaders.

Despite the amount of discussion about, as well as support for, the concept of instructional leadership, little has been done to define that concept operationally. Few studies have been undertaken to determine the specific behaviors of administrators who serve as instructional leaders. Early efforts tended to define leadership behavior in very narrow terms. As a result, most early descriptions focused only on the ways in which school principals became directly involved with instructional activities, and the perception grew that only those principals who spent nearly all of their time either teaching classes or observing teachers were legitimately serving as instructional leaders. This narrow view has more recently been rejected for at least two reasons. First, we now recognize that individuals (e.g. supervisors, superintendents or department chairs) might indeed engage in instructional leadership behaviors. Second, we have increasingly realized that instructional leadership can take forms that go well beyond direct intervention in classroom activities. The definition of instructional leadership suggested by Lui (1984) is using in describing this concept.:

> Instructional leadership consists of direct or indirect behaviors that significantly affect teacher instruction and, as a result, student learning.

Lui divides the tasks of instructional behavior leadership into two categories -- direct and indirect. In very broad terms, we might classify direct leadership activities as staff development and teacher supervision and evaluation, and indirect leadership as instructional facilitation, resource acquisition and building maintenance, and student problem resolution. Examples of specific behaviors related to each of these broad categories are shown in the following list:

Factor I: Staff Development

Work with a committee to plan and implement the staff development program.

Survey staff members to determine topics and activities for a year-long staff development plan.

Provide inservice training for the support staff on how their roles relate to the instruction program.

Factor II: Resource Acquisition and Building Maintenance

Maintain the building in order to provide a pleasant working condition for students and staff.

Acquire adequate resources for teaching.

Allocate resources on the basis of identified needs according to a priority ranking.

Factor III: Instructional Facilitation

Establish priorities so that, by the amount of time devoted to it, instruction is always first.

Work according to the belief that all students can learn and achieve at high levels.

Support teachers who are implementing new ideas.

Factor IV: Teacher Supervision and Evaluation

Involve staff members and people from the community in setting clear goals and objectives for instruction.

Work according to the belief that all teachers can teach and teach well.

Have conferences with individual teachers to review their instructional plans.

Factor V: Student Problem Resolution

Assist teachers in dealing with discipline problems.

Enforce school attendance policies to reduce tardiness and absentee rates.

Interact directly with students to discuss their problems about school.

Using these classifications and descriptions of instructional leadership behaviors, Lui (1985) studied two groups of high school principals, one "effective" and the other "not effective." He found that the effective group engaged in instructional leadership behaviors more often than the other group, and that those behaviors reflected both direct and indirect instructional leadership. It is suspected, then, that instructional leadership is as much a product of a personalized educational philosophy as it is of any particular activities that a person follows.

One of the most comprehensive recent efforts to gain a better understanding of what behaviors compromise instructional leadership was carried out by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) which looked at the work of numerous principals who had been identified as instructional leaders. Five behavioral patterns were identified in those individuals who were viewed as effective leaders:

1. They provide a sense of vision to their schools: They demonstrate the ability to articulate what a school is supposed to do, particularly in terms of what it should do to benefit children. Effective instructional leaders leave little doubt that the purpose of the school is to find ways in which children may learn successfully. This vision, or mission, guides all other actions.

2. They engage in participative management: They encourage a better organizational climate in the school by allowing teachers and staff to participate meaningfully in real decision making, and not merely in an effort to "play at" getting people to be involved when decisions are already made. The staff senses greater ownership in the priorities and programs that are available to help children.

3. They provide support for instruction: Instructional leaders are so committed to maintaining quality instruction as their primary organizational focus that when decisions must be made concerning priorities,

instruction always comes first. These individuals make it clear to all around them that energy will be expended to assure that resources are available to enable the instructional program of the school to proceed unabated.

4. Instructional leaders monitor instruction: They know what is going on in the classrooms of their schools. This monitoring may take several forms, from direct in-class intensive observation to merely walking around the building and talking with students. The critical issue, regardless of the particular procedures followed, is that instructional leaders are aware of the quality of instruction being carried out in their schools.

5. They are resourceful: Instructional leaders rarely allow circumstances in their organizations to get in the way of their vision for quality educational programs. As a result, they tend not to allow the lack of resources, or apparently prohibitive school or district policies, or any other factors from interfering with their goals for their schools.

Instructional leaders carry out these five behavior patterns very differently. Thus, people with different personalities and philosophies, values, and attitudes can be equally effective as educational leaders. In addition, entirely different schools can serve as settings for instructional leadership of the type identified through the ASCD work.

Developing a Professional Identity

In addition to the general concerns related to effective schools and instructional leaders, mentors need to be aware of the research base regarding the critical needs of beginning administrators which has previously been discussed in chapter two of this Resource Guide. The one thing that stands out in the literature: beginning administrators need to develop a strong professional self-identity. Research clearly shows that beginners need to demonstrate self-esteem, self confidence, and an appreciation of the wide range of responsibilities of the role. In short, the most critical need for a beginning administrator is to answer the following two questions: Who am I? Who am I now that I am a leader? The mentor, then, has a particularly important role to play in helping his/her protege develop personalized responses to these important questions.

This section has been directed towards providing information related to the necessary knowledge base that might be shared with beginning administrators. Many other items might also be included. For example, every school district in the state undoubtedly has special expectations for administrators to carry out. Time management skills are important for experienced as well as beginning administrators.

Finally, if there is one clearly established area where school leaders will always be expected to perform effectively, it is in developing a positive working relationship with staff, students, parents, and co-workers. Each mentor must examine the local conditions to determine what these "other" areas should be.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, some of the most important issues that need to be addressed as part of programs designed to prepare mentors to assist beginning school administrators were addressed. These issues were categorized into three groups. First, existing attitudes were reviewed in terms of some of the fundamental assumptions and conditions that need to be addressed prior to beginning systematic training for mentors. Second, some of the critical skill areas associated with effective mentoring are presented. These included problem solving skills, conferencing techniques, and observation skills. The chapter concluded with a listing of some of the issues that might be considered part of the important knowledge base to be introduced to novice school administrators. These included effective school research, conceptualizations of effective instructional leadership, and skills shown to be needed frequently by beginning administrators.

There is no effort here to provide readers of this Resource Guide with a step-by-step plan for introducing any of these topics as part of a mentor training program. The assumption is made that users of this Resource Guide may have other approaches that they may wish to follow in introducing topics such as problem-solving skills or conferencing. This is not a "cook book" or a training manual. The goal here is to alert designers of some of the areas that need to be considered.

CHAPTER 9

EVALUATING THE ENTRY YEAR PROGRAM

Throughout the chapters of this Resource Guide, information was presented to assist local program facilitators in planning, designing, and implementing an Entry Year program for school administrators. A persistent theme was that Entry Year programs should be viewed as part of a larger commitment to ongoing professional development. One important way for that goal to be realized is through the development of procedures designed to evaluate the effectiveness of a local school district's Entry Year program.

In this chapter, information will be provided to assist local planners with the assessment of their Entry Year programs. Particular attention will be placed on the use of a model for the evaluation of inservice programs suggested by the Ohio Department of Education.

EVALUATION AND DECISION MAKING

Evaluation has been defined as "the process and standard used to assign worth or value to the evidence [or data] that has been collected." (Bishop, 1976)

Program quality is directly related to how effectively the evaluation plan improves decision making. Evaluation should be "a collaborative venture whose primary purpose is to assist with the planning and implementing of programs" (Burrello and Arbaugh, 1982).

Collecting input from mentors and proteges about their year's experience as participants in the mentor training program, does not constitute a complete evaluation. Collaborative judgments about what has worked and why, and what has been achieved and why should help to specify the standards by which programs should be judged, modified and reconstituted. If changes are to be made to better accommodate the needs of both mentors and proteges, and for program improvement, then a collaborative decision making process should be conducted for selecting an alternative approach to the problem situation.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE EVALUATION

A strong evaluation plan should provide systematic information about the mentoring program. This can take the form of formative evaluation or summative evaluation.

"A comprehensive evaluation should include assessments throughout the ... program. Formative evaluations provide assessments of effectiveness during the program or activity so revisions can be made. This type of evaluation procedure has a crucial diagnostic dimension; positive results can be reinforced; problems can be corrected; emerging needs can be identified." (Mertz, 1983). Throughout the year spontaneous written or verbal feedback from the mentors and proteges should be encouraged by the program planners for continuous assessment of the program.

The second evaluation plan taken at the conclusion of the program, or at the end of the school year, is referred to the summative evaluation. "This type of evaluation supplies evidence about overall program effectiveness, and it also provides data for making decisions" (Mertz, 1983) or modifications to the program.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Three basic components should be a part of all "well designed evaluations." These components would include: objectives, investments, and results and benefits.

1. Objectives - "A clear, concise statement of objectives is imperative. The more specific the objective, the easier it becomes for participants to meet that objective and to evaluate how that objective is being met." (Mertz, 1983)

2. Investments - "Once the objectives are established, the resources and types of learning formats need to be planned." (Mertz, 1983) For the planners of the mentoring program, the component may include sessions for the mentors that would review their roles and responsibilities, as well as, their sharing of personal experience and expertise in helping the protege realize his/her own level of confidence and competencies that he/she possesses in order to feel more successful in their new professional role.

3. Results and benefits - "The results of any ... program should be examined in terms of the (program's) goals and the participant's growth. Improvement should be evident at the organizational and individual level." (Mertz, 1983)

Both mentors and proteges should benefit and "yield profitable results" from their participation in this program if it is well planned and flexible enough to meet the needs of all participants. It is hopeful that both sides of the mentor/protege relationship will learn from each other, learn more about their position, and develop personally as well as professionally as a result of being a part of this program. The organization should also benefit as a result of professionals working collaboratively, collegially, and in striving to create a high quality education within a positive learning environment for all students and educational personnel.

TYPES OF EVALUATIVE MEASURES

Evaluative measures are the "techniques or instruments used to collect and ascertain the extent or nature of change that has occurred." (Bishop, 1976) "Researchers concur that the instrument or technique used for evaluation should model the behavior being evaluated." (Mertz, 1983)

It is important to keep in mind when evaluating the deficiencies or successes of a program that the measurement instruments reflect the intended behaviors of the participants. "Different concerns, like different types of learning, will influence the types of instruments used." (Baden, 1980)

Planners of the mentoring program are encouraged to use a variety of evaluative instruments in collecting meaningful data from the mentors and proteges. Participants of the program can share their experiences and personal perspectives in different ways such as: group discussions, interviews, questionnaires, or logs. Planners of the program are encouraged to be more than just "planners." If these individuals are actively involved throughout the course of the program they also will get a feel for the way the program is developing and personally receive "signals" about changes that need to be made either immediately or for subsequent programs.

EVALUATION AS REASSESSMENT

The evaluation process can be time consuming, very detailed, and, at many times, encouraging or discouraging as a result of collecting the essential data. However, even when this process is considered to be completed by the mentors and proteges, the planners of the program are actively getting ready for next year's program, by projecting and prioritizing the basic components for the subsequent program in order for it to be more successful. (Mertz, 1983)

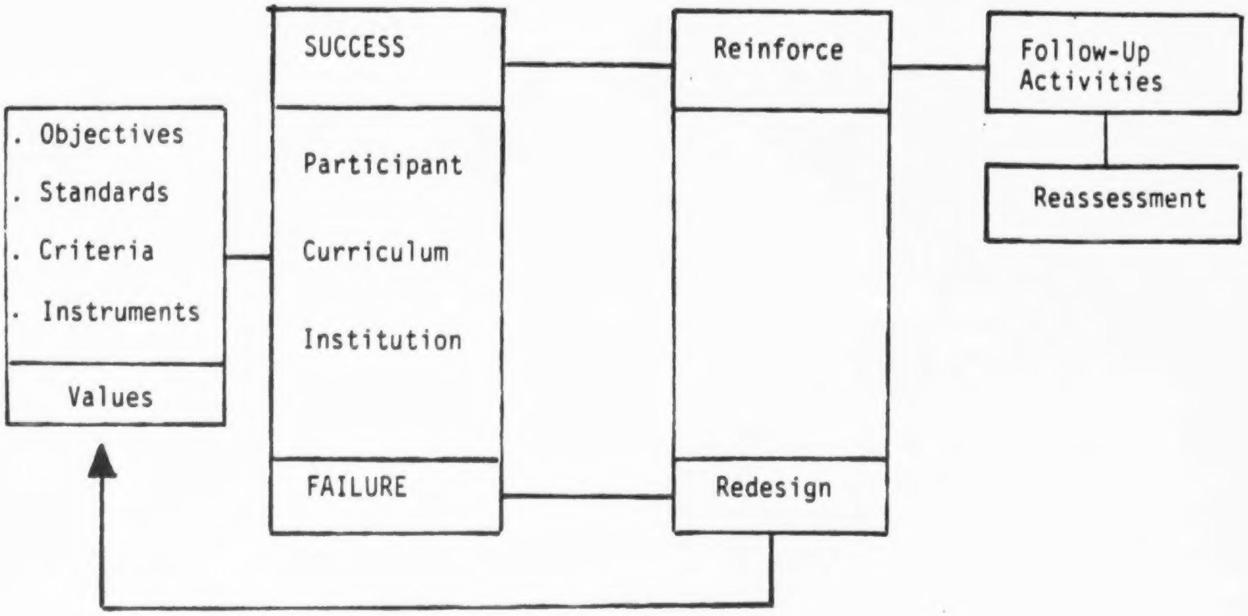
. Objectives
. Standards
. Criteria
. Instruments
Values
SUCCESS
Participant
Curriculum
Institution
FAILURE
Reinforce
Redesign
Follow-Up Activities
Reassessment

Figure 9.1 Generic Model for Decision Making and Follow-Up in an Evaluation

"From the perspective of long-range (planners), ... the success or failure of a particular program is in reality formative -- a midpoint measure or evaluation -- to help assess future programming. The evaluation results lead to the next stage: a reassessment of what has been strengthened, what needs improvement, what should be done. As part of the reassessment, the goals of the ... program should be examined again. Major elements of ... the program -- such as collaborative efforts, participant involvement, planning activities, delivery systems, and implementation -- should be analyzed. How do these elements contribute to positive results? How can these factors be improved? The success or failure of any specific program endeavor is not that significant. Instead, significance should be measured by what the participants do as a result of the success or failure. Those results are the ultimate criterion." (Mertz, 1983)

SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the evaluative issues of a mentoring program. A variety of measurement instruments and strategies can and should be utilized by all participants of the program. Just as each school district will plan a mentoring program to reflect the unique concerns, needs, and realities of a specific school district, it will also be true that the evaluation procedures be different to reflect the individual school district as well as the individuals in the school district. Direct, collaborative input is essential in gaining knowledge about the success or failure of the program. This important data is then analyzed, compiled and implemented in the reassessment process of subsequent program planning sessions and programs. Planners should never be satisfied with a completed program, but can be satisfied with a program that is continuously changing, reflecting individual needs, and constantly becoming better.

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